The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 13, 1896.

The Week.

THE proceedings of the conference of sound-money Democrats at Indianapolis on Friday were marked by a decorum and patriotic fervor which call to mind the Declaration of Independence. The address issued to the Democrats of the United States could not possibly be improved in point of temper or taste. Nor could the purpose of the gentlemen present be expressed in more forcible terms. The attendance was larger than had been expected, and it was composed of men of such high character and abilities and such long and distinguished service that nothing remains to be desired in the way of personal example. Instead of a "boy orator," there was Gen. Palmer, a war veteran and political associate and personal friend of Abraham Lincoln. In place of Tillman was James O. Broadhead of Missouri, and in place of Altgeld Gen. S. B. Buckner of Kentucky. These are representative men of the two wings of the Democratic party. The contrast between them is no wider than that between their creeds. The men who met on Friday appeal to their fellow-Democrats to save the party by saving its principles. They say that a party without principles is nothing to them. They believe that the party has a future of usefulness if it stands for the honor and dignity of the nation which it has so often supported and vindicated, but that if it becomes a party of repudiation and bad money, it is doomed to early extinction and is fit only to be buried.

The conference decided by unanimous vote to call a national Democratic convention to meet at Indianapolis on Wednesday, September 2, to nominate candidates for President and Vice-President, and for this purpose appointed a national committee, of which Gen. Palmer is chairman. One of the most important consequences of this action will be the publicity thus secured to the third-ticket movement. Public attention will be centred upon it as it could not be if the revolt against Bryan were sporadic and unorganized. Much of the alarm and business depression that we have witnessed during the past month has been due to the two spectacles beheld at Chicago and St. Louis, where two conventions of repudiators met and tried to unite their schemes for destroying the public credit, in one working team. These filled the public eye for the time, and naturally impaired credit and damaged trade. We shall now have an exhibition of another sort, and we may expect an entirely different effect.

Nothing could be better than the declaration of principles issued on Friday by the sound-money Democrats of Maine. They "arraign" the Chicago platform, but they do not employ the meaningless platitudes generally used in such arraignments. They think clearly and they say clearly what they think. They waste no words, but they show in most concise language just what the Chicago platform means. What it really means is the repudiation by our Government of nearly one-half of its obligations. It means that our courts are to enforce no contracts payable in anything else but what Congress shall from time to time declare to be lawful money. It means that our judges are to be appointed or elected for the purpose of giving decisions satisfactory to the party in power. It means that if the United States mails are stopped by a riotous mob, the President shall not interfere. Such doctrines, the sturdy Democrats of Maine declare, are dangerous, revolutionary, subversive of government and social order, and utterly opposed to the time-honored principles of the Democratic party. This is plain truth, expressed in plain, ringing words, and it is cheering to see the spirit with which the issue is tendered. Mercenary calculations of the gains to be made by inflating prices shrink into insignificance when our country's honor is in peril.

The honest-money Democrats of New Jersey moved too late to be represented in the Indianapolis conference, except by telegraphed sympathy, but their meeting on Friday was none the less a pronounced success. Their natural leader, Senator Smith, had turned tail and gone off to Europe, leaving behind him a message to the effect that this money business was a mighty puzzling affair, but that New Jersey Democrats ought not to hesitate as to the duty of electing him to the Senate for another term. After the vigorous gold-standard plank of the State convention, this was a piece of scandalous cowardice, which inevitably left the honest-money men of the party at a disadvantage. But they were able to secure on Friday a surprisingly large expression of sentiment in favor of a third ticket, and in no State will it be more heartily welcomed and supported. Under the circumstances, it is the opinion of the best political judges that New Jersey is just as certain as Vermont to give its electoral vote to McKinley and Hobart.

While the Democratic defection is growing daily, the Republican lines are showing a firmer front. The threatened Republican cleavage in a few Western States appears now to be entirely checked. One State convention after another walks squarely up to an endorsement of the St. Louis platform, in some cases a specific endorsement of the gold plank being made. Iowa, Minnesota, and the Dakotas, where there was much talk of Republican disaffection on the silver issue, had already fallen into line, and on Thursday Michigan and Wisconsin joined them. The Republican committeeman in Illinois who, a few weeks ago, expressed great fears for that State, now confesses that a sweeping change in public sentiment has set in, and that Illinois is safe for McKinley. All told, the drift is at present decidedly against the Democrats. Something may yet occur to make for them, but their best outlook is for an up-hill fight against increasing odds.

A travelling correspondent of the *World* telegraphs from Indianapolis that the silver wave has reached its height in the central West, and that the tide is already visibly receding in Indiana. He says that he has read letters from leaders of the Democratic party in various States of that region, and that they are unanimous in expressing this opinion as to every State except Ohio, where recovery from the craze has not yet begun. This agrees with the impression derived from a careful study of the press between the Alleghanies and the Rockies during the past fortnight. Desertions from the Republican party to Bryan on the silver issue have ceased, while not a day passes without its list of leading Democrats who repudiate the surrender of their party to Populism. The silverites have plainly lost their first confidence that they were going to "sweep the country," while the sound-money men grow daily more confident that the campaign of education which they will wage must be crowned with success.

The Bryan demonstration at Chicago has caused some uneasiness, because everything that points to his success in the campaign means business disaster, bad trade, and loss of employment; the greater the fear of his election, the more acute the suffering will be. Yet the mere presence of a crowd on the occasion of his arrival at any place does not portend anything as to the voting next November. The Chicago reception signifies nothing but the curiosity of a mixed multitude in a city of more than a million inhabitants. Mr. Bryan is a new man, an attractive man, a young man, and he is running for the Presidency. These facts are sufficient to bring a crowd together at any place, and the larger the place the larger the crowd. Still, the owners of property which is threatened by the mad attack on the standard of value which Bryan represents cannot be blamed if they become

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

alarmed. It is inevitable that they should be. Mr. Bryan is an *avant-courrier* of panic and crash. The longer his tour is continued the more acute will be the symptoms, and the more widespread the suffering. Already Mr. Bland has recognized the fact that the business community look upon this tour as an evil omen, and has adopted a conservative tone, but what kind of conservatism is that which begins by depreciating the currency one-half, and thereby repudiating one-half of all public and private debts? All the soothing words in the dictionary will never reconcile a man to being skinned alive. Mr. Bland's conservatism is merely the evidence that he is alarmed by the revolt of the conservative business men of the Democratic party against the Chicago platform and candidates. That revolt will increase just in proportion as the gloom in the business world deepens.

Mr. Bryan has at last chosen his rôle, and it is evidently to be that of the agitator and the demagogue. His first speeches, after two weeks of silence and meditation, make that clear. He went out of his way at Chicago to bid defiance to the conservative elements in this country, and to fling himself ostentatiously into the arms of what he calls the "toiling masses," whom he is not going, if he is elected President, to allow the merchant, the banker, the manufacturer any longer to "rob." More openly still did he make his appeal to the mob in his speech at Davenport, Iowa. The President was to be only a "hired man." He was to be put in office only to carry out the behests of the populace. As for any policy, any convictions of his own, the idea was preposterous. If he contrived to placate the mob, he would be doing his full duty. That is the note sounding clear and sharp in Mr. Bryan's speeches of Saturday. He is no doubt making a virtue of necessity in thus choosing the part of a social agitator. The revolt of the stable people of the country and of his own party against his nomination has been too pronounced not to have struck some alarm even to his complacent soul. With business and property and the law-abiding sense turning from him, the only thing left for him was to appeal boldly to the unrest, the ignorance, the passions of the mob. It is well that he has thus early declared himself, and we hope his evident conviction of his own greatness will keep him going up and down and letting the country see the manner of man he is.

A movement to revive an obsolete form of protectionism by enacting discriminating duties on imports in favor of American ships, was started at a meeting of shipbuilders held in Philadelphia on the 9th of April of the present year. Mr. Sewall, the Democratic candidate for Vice-President, was present, representing his own shipbuilding works. The official report says that the meeting was called to order by Mr. Charles H. Cramp, who nominated for President Mr. Arthur Sewall, and he was unanimously elected. The result was the organization of the "American Merchant Marine Association," with Mr. Sewall as the permanent President. The object of the association is to work up public sentiment in favor of reviving the old abandoned policy. They have sent out a circular and a begging letter to raise funds, saying:

"At the expense of the Association, the Republican State conventions held in the following places were attended by persons authorized to urge the adoption of planks committing the party to this policy: New Jersey, Georgia, Alabama, Connecticut, Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Michigan, Indiana, Delaware, and Colorado. Success followed in every State but Indiana."

The circular recites that equal success attended their efforts at the Republican national convention. Then it adds:

"While the Democratic platform does not contain any expression on the subject of shipping, the vice-presidential candidate nominated by that party is the President of this Association, Hon. Arthur Sewall of Bath, Maine, an earnest advocate of the policy of discriminating duties."

This is the first rational explanation we have seen of Mr. Sewall's nomination. Here was an organized body of high-tariff protectionists "working" the political conventions. They had abundant success in the Republican camp, naturally. In the Democratic party, however, they could not accomplish anything openly, but they managed to get their president nominated for the second place on the ticket. Mr. Sewall was an unknown man outside of his own State. The State of Maine was not the place exactly for any political party to go to for a candidate unless he were a man of note like Speaker Reed. Yet Sewall was nominated, to the surprise of everybody. The explanation is now easy. It was a game to commit the party to a form of protectionism which nearly all Democrats are opposed to, and Mr. Bryan most of all. To understand the significance of this project, it must be borne in mind that American shipbuilders already have prohibitory duties on their products. No American is allowed to own a foreign-built ship and sail her under our flag and under the protection of our laws. No foreign-built ship can engage in the coastwise trade. Here are two forms of monopoly absolutely secured to them. Now they want a discriminating duty of 10 per cent. on all goods not imported in American bottoms. Even McKinley never proposed this or anything so antiquated and reactionary. One of the objections to it, although not the strongest one, is that foreign nations can play the same game on us, and probably would do so. It was for this reason that we abandoned the policy in 1828. Now the Democratic party nominates for the Vice-Presidency a man whose only distinction is that he represents this protectionist scheme. Mr. John Thomson of the Neptune Meter Company, who had been solicited to contribute to the funds of the Sewall Association, declines to do so on the very proper ground that Mr. Sewall represents a financial policy which would "materially reduce if it would not effectually paralyze the transshipment of American and European products."

Watson had his way in the Georgia Populist State convention on Friday, which put up a full ticket of Bryan and Watson electors, and resolved to keep it in the field until election day unless the Democratic managers should withdraw Sewall, in which case a fusion ticket will be made up, half Democratic electors and the other half Populist. Every day, however, serves to make it more plain that the Democratic managers have no idea of withdrawing Sewall. Chairman Jones of the national committee undoubtedly expressed the general opinion among the party leaders, as well as his own, when he made his contemptuous remarks about the Southern Populists the other day. This feeling has been intensified by the result of the Alabama State election on Monday, which the Democratic managers interpret to mean that their party can carry the South again this year without being obliged to make any concession to the Populists. It is in Western States like Kansas and Nebraska that the Populist alliance is of importance to the Democrats, and the third-party men in that section appear ready to swallow Sewall. The present indications, therefore, are that Watson will be left to flock by himself.

Speaker Reed made another excellent speech on Thursday at Portland. He took up the money question in an elementary way, and answered the principal arguments of the silver men in terms at once logical and simple. He did not pretend to be very wise on the subject. He confessed to deficiencies which are not disclosed in his speech. By assuming this humble attitude he undoubtedly won the ear of his audience. At all events they could not have been better entertained for the brief time that he talked to them. He took up the so-called "crime of 1873," and demolished the fabric of falsehood founded upon the charge that the coinage act of that year was passed secretly and with fraudulent intent. He showed that an attempt to regulate prices by changing the standard of value would be mischievous and uncertain in its results, and shockingly unjust. Too little attention has been given to this phase of the question. The principal argument of the silverites is that because the prices of most articles have fallen since 1873, the debtor class (a vague and undetermined number of people) ought to have something done for them by law; and that the most feasible plan is to change the standard of value for the whole com-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

munity in order to accommodate them. The number of debts contracted in 1873 and still existing is very small. It does not even include the Government debt. All of the bonds now outstanding were issued later. There may be a few railroad bonds that were issued before that time which are not payable specifically in gold, but not many. It is safe to say that not a thousandth of the existing indebtedness was contracted twenty-three years ago. And yet the silver orators, Mr. Bryan among them, talk glibly of the injustice of requiring the debtor to pay more value to-day than he would have to pay if we were on a silver basis. The bulk of the debts in the country are short-time debts, such as board bills, tradesmen's bills, wages, deposits in savings banks and other banks; in short, those relating to the daily life of the people. It is proposed by the Bryan crowd to pay all these at the rate of 53 cents on the dollar as soon as they can elect a President and muster a majority in Congress, on the pretence of correcting a supposed injustice to a handful of men who borrowed money more than twenty-three years ago and have not yet paid it. Mr. Reed has done well to unmask this intended fraud. It is to be hoped that other speakers will do the same.

Republican newspapers at the North which treat the victory of the Democratic candidate in the Alabama election on Monday as evidence of fraud can hardly have followed the course of the campaign or learned the character of the fusion candidate. Goodwyn was elected a member of the Legislature in 1892, and again in 1894. At each session he refused to vote at all on the final passage of the bill to levy taxes for the support of the State Government—a course which, if generally adopted by members of the Legislature, would have left the treasury without a cent. In the session of 1892 he was guilty of a still greater sin of commission. During the two previous years a reduction of the tax-rate had impaired the income so much that there was great danger, not only of a large future deficit in the treasury, but that the public schools would be paralyzed, and the State put to great straits to pay interest on the public debt, to maintain its great charitable institutions, to feed the prisoners, and otherwise promptly to meet the wants of good government. The Governor made an earnest appeal to the Legislature, when it met in November, to increase the tax-rate before taking a recess, so as to give confidence to lenders; and when it was found impracticable to agree upon a revenue bill in time, he asked the passage of some resolution which would show the purpose of the Legislature to uphold the credit of the State, and enable him to borrow money to tide over the emergency caused by January payments. A resolution was therefore offered declaring that "the credit of the State shall be protected at all hazards, and, if necessary, the rate of taxation will be raised." A motion was made to lay this resolution on the table, and Goodwyn voted for it with three other Populist Senators. Had the resolution been laid upon the table, no money could have been borrowed, and the vote would have inflicted a terrible blow upon the credit of the State, resulting in the stoppage of the common schools, and great suffering among the inmates of the State institutions. No sensible Republican at the North would vote to make a man with such a record as this Governor of his State. Why should Northern Republican newspapers take it for granted that there are no sensible men in the Republican party at the South?

Mr. Gamaliel Bradford, Treasurer of the Anti-Biennial League in Boston, publishes a letter containing an argument in opposition to biennial legislatures. His principal point is that the causes which produce excessive legislation are independent of the length of time or number of sessions allotted to legislation, and hence, we presume, that if a legislature is elected once in two years, the result will be the same volume of legislation as before, only compressed into one session instead of two. There is a good deal of force in this if a biennial session only is contemplated; but in those States in which the reform has been successful it has been accompanied by constitutional changes which sap the sources of legislation itself, and by this means make annual sessions unnecessary. Half the legislation in Massachusetts is "special," just as it is in New York; that is, it relates to all sorts of local and private objects, such as corporations and the local affairs of cities and towns, which may be provided for by general laws or constitutional provisions, and to deal with which it is absurd to bring some three hundred legislators, elaborately selected by the machinery of the suffrage, to Boston for five months in the year. Cut down the control of the Legislature over all this business as much as possible, and one session in two years will be ample to transact all the business which arises. Such has been the history of biennial legislation in Illinois, and, we believe, in every State where it has been fairly tried.

We have before us the Massachusetts Acts and Resolves of 1896, and it is only necessary to turn over the pages to see how few of the measures passed are laws at all in the sense of general rules affecting the conduct of the community. An act, for instance, to authorize the city of Chicopee to make a water loan of $45,000 is called a law only because it is passed by the Legislature, and the same thing is true of an act to authorize the Berkshire Cotton Manufacturing Company to increase its capital stock, and an act to authorize the First Unitarian Church in Peabody to increase its membership; all of which statutes we find at random on a single page. One object of a legislature in theory is to protect the public against misuse of governmental power, and the real reason why our legislatures are so wonderfully busy is that instead of doing this they are occupied in using governmental power to make grants, promote jobs, and interfere in local concerns in which the public at large has little or no concern; and control over which, experience shows, can advantageously be withdrawn from the Legislature altogether.

The defeat of Lord Salisbury's Government in the House of Lords, on some clauses of the Irish Land bill, is a political event of capital importance. It must be said that it has its comic aspects. The Lords appear to have taken seriously Lord Salisbury's solemn assurances, apropos of the Home-Rule bill, that they were an independent legislative body, with revisory powers which it was their bounden duty to exercise. Very well, said their lordships, we will exercise those powers on your Irish Land bill, especially as it happens to hit our own pockets pretty hard. The vote that beat the Government was really a vote of landlords against a bill designed to impair their existing legal rights and profits. Party loyalty went down before private interest. Politically, the effect cannot but be bad for the Lords. Tory voices will now be heard agreeing with Liberal that the upper house stands for but a class interest, which it always blindly and selfishly defends against the popular branch. Conservative anger with the House of Lords for its action on an Irish bill is one of the sweetest revenges for Mr. Gladstone that the whirligig of time ever brought round. It must be said for the peers, however, that the Government gave them great provocation and a first-class opening by its management of the bill. This was not only weak and vacillating, but self-stultifying. The deadly parallel was never more deadly than when applied to the position and utterances of Mr. Balfour and Lord Salisbury in 1894 and in 1896. In Mr. Morley's bill, proposals virtually identical with those finally incorporated in the Balfour bill were denounced by the men who are now ministers as little better than confiscation. This was pointed out in debate by Mr. Carson, himself a Conservative. Only two years ago Lord Salisbury said: "We cannot consent to do what is called healing a sore and conjuring danger by flinging to those evicted tenants another slice of the attenuated rights of Irish landlords." An Irish peer, writing to the London *Times*, showed the bitter feeling of his class and forecast the result which has now arrived, when he said that the Government had made terms with the home-rulers "with a slice of our own estates and the transfer of our own rights."

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

AN ERA OF HIGH PRICES.

NOTHING is more remarkable in the present craze for inflation that is said to prevail in the agricultural regions than the oblivion of the experience through which the country passed scarcely thirty years ago. The Western States where the desire for high prices is now most urgent, were then to a large extent unsettled, but the Southern States in the main were in their present condition of development, and very many of their inhabitants must clearly remember how things were under a régime of much higher prices than are promised by the free-silver men—higher prices, in fact, than have anywhere prevailed since the days of the old Continental currency. Why we now hear so little allusion to this era of high prices in the Southern States, where schemes for inflation are most popular, we do not understand; but it may not be unprofitable to call attention to the subject, and Mrs. Jefferson Davis's memoir of her husband will furnish unimpeachable testimony for the consideration of Southern farmers.

They should read, with longing for the good old times, that by the middle of July in 1862 the farmers of the South were selling eggs, which now bring but 10 or 12 cents a dozen, for $1; potatoes, which are now so cheap, for $6 a bushel; chickens, 57 cents to $1 apiece; butter, 75 cents to $1 a pound; and cabbages, 50 cents to 75 cents a head. By November the fortunate farmers of those days were getting $15 a barrel for their corn and $4.50 a bushel for their wheat. In February, 1863, prices had risen to a figure that must fairly make the modern farmer's mouth water. Chickens were then $12 a pair, and bacon $8—not a barrel, but a pound! But in 1864 wealth "beyond the dreams of avarice" or of the wildest advocate of free silver was pouring in on the farmer. Flour then brought $300 a barrel; a turkey would fetch $60; white beans sold for $75 a bushel, and milk $4 a quart. By 1865 the amount of money that a farmer could obtain for his products was almost incalculable. He could name his own price, and the supply of money was inexhaustible. Never before had the farmers of this or any other country had so much money in their pockets. In fact, their pockets were not large enough to hold it, and it was said that people took their money to market in their baskets, and brought home their purchases in their pockets.

For some reason, however, the farmers did not seem to be very prosperous. They are notorious grumblers, it is true, and always complaining about something, and this time it was the quality of the money. So far as quantity was concerned, nothing was left to be asked for; but when they got cheap money they found they did not like it. They began to see that money in itself was of no use to them except as they could buy things with it; and Mrs. Davis tells us what the farmers had to pay for what they bought. If they wanted coffee for breakfast, they could get it in 1862 for $4 a pound; if they fancied a good cup of tea, they could be accommodated at from $18 to $20 a pound. If they wished to sweeten these beverages, sugar could be had for $20 a pound. If a farmer drove to market, he could have his horse fed for $5, or kept for a day for $15. A few months later he could get a pair of boots for from $100 to $200 a pair; and if for any reason he wished to economize, he could get his old boots tapped for $50. If, on the other hand, he preferred to enjoy his money, he could spend it like a lord by getting a dinner at a restaurant, where a plate of soup cost $1.50, roast beef $3.50, fried oysters $5, a cup of coffee $3; whiskey, however, being only $2 a drink. But every one knows that it is cheaper to be sociable in dining, and nine Confederate soldiers had a comfortable dinner together for only $631.50.

Soldiers, however, are notorious spendthrifts, and probably it would do them little good if money were made as abundant as water. Such at least would appear to be the case from the following extract taken by Mrs. Davis from Col. Miller Owen's 'In Camp and Battle with the Washington Artillery':

Travelling expenses of an officer of artillery en route from Richmond, Va., to Augusta, Ga., March and April, 1865:

March 11th, meal on the road	$20 00
March 17th, cigars and bitters	60 00
March 20th, hair-cutting and shave	10 00
March 20th, pair of eye-glasses	135 00
March 20th, candles	50 00
March 23d, coat, vest, and pants	2,700 00
March 27th, one gallon whiskey	400 00
March 30th, one pair of pants	700 00
March 30th, one pair of cavalry boots	450 00
April 12th, six yards of linen	1,200 00
April 14th, one ounce sul. quinine	1,700 00
April 14th, two weeks' board	700 00
April 14th, bought $60 gold	6,000 00
April 24th, one dozen Catawba wine	900 00
April 24th, shad and sundries	75 00
April 24th, matches	25 00
April 24th, penknife	125 00
April 24th, package brown Windsor	50 00

Strangely enough, from the cheap-money point of view, these high prices did not induce the farmers to bring forward their crops to market. Nearly everybody seemed to be miserably poor; many came near starving; some did starve. People parched sweet potatoes and corn and rye as a substitute for coffee; women wove cotton cloth for blankets, and sewed up coverings for their feet out of old carpets. "In Gen. Lee's tent, meat was eaten twice a week. His bill of fare was a head of cabbage boiled in salt water, sweet potatoes, and a pone of corn bread. When he invited an officer to dinner, he had, to his astonishment, four inches of middling; every one refused, from politeness, and the servant excused the smallness of the piece by saying it was borrowed." And yet it was said that Virginia alone could have fed the army had the gold standard been maintained.

But there was nothing strange about it. The farmers very soon found out by experience that if they sold their produce for cheap money, they could not buy enough with this money to live on. Prices were rising all the time; if they kept their corn and pork, they would get more money for it, and yet this money would all the time buy less and less. If they tried to save the imaginary wealth which poured in on them, they found it impossible. The longer they kept it the less it was worth; and after a hundred dollars of it came to be worth less than one dollar in gold, it became practically waste paper. This is the experience which the Southern Populists are determined to repeat, and which the Southern Democrats seem disposed to aid them in repeating; for if any one supposes that the demand for inflation will stop with the free coinage of silver, he ignores all history. Let this measure pass, and such demoralization will follow as will make it a desperate struggle to avert irredeemable paper.

CREDIT INSTRUMENTS.

FEW things are better known to the limited class of students of finance than the relatively small part borne by metallic money, or by metallic and paper money together, in the business transactions of the world to-day. Yet few things are so little understood by the public. Among the letters of inquiry which we are receiving from day to day is the following:

"I have heard it asserted, in a discussion regarding the silver question, that were the combined money of the world, meaning gold and silver, placed in one huge pile, and a pro-rata distribution made of it, the share of each inhabitant of the earth would barely be one cent. Can there be any truth in this? What is the actual proportion of real money to the earth's population?"

This is a perfectly proper question, but it happens that we cannot answer it. Nor can anybody do so, since the population of large parts of the world is not known and the amount of gold and silver money in the world is not known. Independent conjectures on both points have been made by persons of repute, based in part upon statistics, which would lead us to assume that the population of the world is about 1,200,000,000, and the amount of gold and silver money about $6,000,000,000, which would be about $5 per capita. On the other hand, we must remember that in Central Africa and in Central China the people do not use gold and silver at all, or very slightly, and consequently that the amount apportioned to them should be cast out of the reckoning, thus swelling the per-capita allowance of the remainder.

All this is more curious than instructive. We allude to it as a proper introduction to another set of facts as to which very exact statistics are attainable, going to show the comparative insignificance of the quantity of metallic money in the world provided the amount be sufficient to serve the purposes of a touchstone, or, as we commonly say, a standard. It is necessary that the paper dollar, pound sterling, franc, mark, or whatever may be the unit of value in any country, shall be immediately convertible into the metallic thing which it promises to pay. When this condition is satisfied, the mere

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

quantity of those metallic things is of no consequence. It may be said in a general way that the higher the state of civilization in any country, and the more perfect its banking system, the smaller will be the percentage of metallic money needed to transact its business, and the smaller also the amount of circulating cash of all kinds.

Three times has a "census" been taken in the banks of the United States, to see what proportion of this business is done by means of money, and the kinds of money, and what proportion by credit. Paper instruments of all kinds are credit instruments, but the object of the census in each case was rather to find out what proportion of the business was done without the use of anything that passes by the name of money. The first investigation was made by the Comptroller of the Currency in 1881, the second in 1890, and the third in 1892. We will confine attention to the two last mentioned. The method adopted in each case was to ask each bank to make a careful enumeration of the kinds of things that it took in as deposits on a particular day. Two days were chosen in 1890, viz., the 1st of July and the 17th of September, and the results are thus recorded in the Comptroller's report for that year:

"The total receipts of the 3,364 banks on July 1 last were $421,824,726. Of this sum $3,726,605 was in gold coin, $1,352,647 in silver coin, $6,427,973 in gold Treasury certificates, $6,442,638 in silver Treasury certificates, $7,881,786 in legal-tender Treasury notes, $5,244,967 in national banknotes, $520,000 in United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes, $189,408,708 in checks, drafts, certificates of deposit, and bills of exchange, $4,391,177 in clearing-house certificates, $194,290,203 in exchanges for clearing-houses, and $2,138,022 in miscellaneous items not classified.

"Of the total receipts on that day .89 per cent. was in gold coin, .32 per cent. in silver coin, 1 52 per cent. in gold certificates, 1.53 per cent. in silver certificates, 1.87 per cent. in legal-tender notes, 1.25 per cent. in national banknotes, .12 per cent. in United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes, 44.90 per cent. in checks, drafts, and bills of exchange, 1.04 per cent. in clearing-house certificates, and 46.56 per cent. in exchanges for clearing-houses, including miscellaneous items.

"It will thus appear that of the total receipts 7.50 per cent. was in coin and paper money, and the remainder, 92.50 per cent., consisted of checks, drafts, bills of exchange, etc., in which are included exchanges for the clearing-houses, clearing-house certificates, and miscellaneous items.

"The total receipts for the 3,474 national banks on September 17 last are stated at $327,278,251. Of this amount $3,702,772 was in gold coin, $1,399,991 in silver coin, $6,159,305 in gold Treasury certificates, $5,908 714 in silver Treasury certificates, $7,665,666 in legal-tender Treasury notes, $4,371,778 in national banknotes, $105,000 in United States certificates of deposit for legal-tender notes, $168,803,756 in checks, drafts, and bills of exchange, $2,428,834 in clearing-house certificates, $126,596,873 in exchanges for clearing-houses, and $135,562 in items not classified. The relative proportions of the several items are stated thus:

"Gold coin 1.13 per cent., silver coin .43 per cent., gold certificates 1.88 per cent., silver certificates 1.81 per cent., legal-tender notes 2.34 per cent., national banknotes 1.34 per cent., United States certificates for legal-tender notes .03 per cent., checks, drafts, and bills of exchange 51.58 per cent., clearing-house certificates .74 cent., and exchanges for clearing-houses, including items not classified, 38.72 per cent.

"By consolidating the several items into two classes, we find that 8.96 per cent. was in cash and 91.04 per cent. in checks, drafts, and other substitutes for money."

The census of 1892 was taken on the 15th of September, and the result was substantially the same, viz.: Gold coin .88 per cent., silver coin .41, gold certificates 1.03, silver certificates 1.97, greenbacks 2.58, Treasury notes .81, national banknotes 1.04, United States certificates of deposit .67, bank checks 46.79, clearing-house certificates .81, exchanges for clearing-house 42.83, miscellaneous .18. "Over 90 per cent. of all business transactions," said Comptroller Hepburn in presenting these figures, "are done by means of credit. When the public lose confidence, and credit is impaired and refused, over 90 per cent. of all business transactions are directly affected. It is easy to realize how impossible it is for the remaining 10 per cent. of money to carry on the business of the country without monetary stringency and financial distress. The refusal to extend or continue credit, the demand for payment in money, leaves the actual money or currency of the country, be it $24 per capita or $50 per capita, utterly powerless to supply business needs."

At the present time one of the great political parties of the country is attacking credit by threatening to reduce the standard of value nearly one-half. Having succeeded in paralyzing industry to a large extent and producing stagnation and loss of employment to thousands of workingmen under pretence of aiding the "debtor class," they charge that the banks have made money tight, and threaten their very existence—*i. e.*, they threaten to extinguish the 90 per cent. of credit machinery which goes hand in hand with the circulating cash of the country. Can anybody fail to see what a crash would come if this party could carry out its declared intentions?

FREE-COINAGE CATECHISM.

Q. WHAT do the free-coinage advocates commonly answer when they are confronted with the facts already stated in this Catechism? A. They reply that whether the gold standard of currency has helped the wage-earner or not, it has seriously hurt the farmer.

Q. What do they allege to be the average farmer's condition? A. They declare that, as a result of the gold standard, the farmers of this country have fallen into a desperate state of poverty.

Q. Is this true? A. It is not.

Q. How can you prove that it is not true? A. By the fact that farmers have been buying more farm land under the gold standard of currency and raising more crops. By the fact that farmers in many Western States are paying off their mortgages. By the fact that in the grain country, outside of parts of Kansas and Nebraska, farm lands are selling for much more than they brought half-a-dozen years ago. Finally, by the personal testimony of experts.

Q. How do you know that the farmers are buying more land? A. By the increase in acreage planted.

Q. Give the figures. A. In 1872 the combined acreage of wheat, corn, oats, barley, and buckwheat in the United States was 65,428,119; in 1894 it was 128,428,092; increase nearly 100 per cent. This year's acreage is not greatly changed from 1894.

Q. Would this increase have been possible if farming had been a losing enterprise? A. Certainly not. When people find that they are losing money in a business, they are apt to stop that business altogether. The last thing they do is to extend the same business to double its former magnitude.

Q. How do you know that farmers are paying off their mortgages? A. By the best of authority, the statements of the loan and mortgage companies which lent the money.

Q. Can you give any instance? A. One company, the New England Loan and Trust, lately published, in an official statement to its security-holders, the fact that $198,944 in farm mortgages were paid off during last March alone. Of this amount $92,664 was paid before the principal was due.

Q. How do you know that farm lands have risen in value? A. In Iowa particularly, we base our information on numerous deeds of sale made within the last year or two, showing advances of 10 to 20 per cent., within four to ten years, in the value of land sold.

Q. Have all farm lands risen in value? A. Not all.

Q. Where are the chief exceptions? A. In parts of Kansas, where the uncertain climate has made the original purchase a bad investment; in parts of Nebraska, where the rainfall is uncertain and where the opening of Oklahoma lowered the price of all neighboring farm country. These were the unlucky experiments, such as are found in every trade.

Q. What personal testimony have you as to farming conditions generally? A. Mr. Prime, the well-known crop expert, and a thoroughly unbiassed authority, lately said, in a published interview: "The farmers in the West were never so well off as they are to-day. They never had so much to eat and drink, or better clothes to wear, or owed so little."

Q. But is it not true that almost all the farmers are heavily in debt? A. It is not.

Q. How do you know they are not? A. By the statistics of the United States census.

Q. What do those statistics show? A. By the census of 1890, there were, in the six States of Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota, 720,479 families cultivating farms. Of this number, 248,750 families had mortgages on their farms, 230,728

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

owned their farms free, while 241,001 rented their farms, and therefore had nothing to do with mortgages.

Q. What does this signify? A. It signifies that in six representative far Western grain States hardly one-third of the cultivators of farms have on their land any mortgages whatever.

Q. But are not the farmers in the South more heavily in debt than this? A. The proportion of Southern farmers under a mortgage is wholly insignificant.

Q. Give some figures. A. By the 1890 census, families owning farms free in Kentucky numbered 118,080; families owning mortgaged farms numbered 4,991. In Tennessee, farms owned outright were 103,346; mortgaged farms, 3,431. In Alabama the proportion was 68,798 to 3,131; in Georgia it was 71,116 to 2,491; in North Carolina, 101,321 to 5,202.

Q. Would not free silver coinage help the farmers to a larger export trade? A. Not unless they sold their grain abroad for a lower price than they sell it now, because they must sell in competition with all the world.

Q. But if gold was at a premium, would it not be a profit to the farmer to sell his grain abroad for gold, and then sell his gold here for depreciated silver? A. Everything he wished to buy with the depreciated silver—clothing, carpets, furniture, farm implements—would rise exactly as much.

Q. Would not the country's export trade be helped by free silver coinage? A. Our export trade has increased since the demonetization of silver, and since our adoption of the gold standard, more rapidly than ever before.

Q. How large was this increase? A. Since 1872, the annual exports of the United States have increased 134 per cent.

Q. In what products was this export increase largest? A. In products of the farm.

Q. Comprising what? A. Grain, cotton, tobacco, meat, live cattle, sheep, and hogs.

Q. What was the increase in these products? A. In 1872 we exported $354,906,637 worth; in 1878, $515,955,203; in 1892, $754,480,843.

Q. What do you conclude from all these facts? A. That, in spite of occasional setbacks, occasional poor harvests, and occasional mistakes in farm-land investment, the farmer in the United States has prospered under the gold standard, and will prosper under its continuance, and that all the "racket" to the contrary is made by the few who have failed and by noisy demagogues.

JAMESON CONVICTED.

LIVERPOOL, July 29, 1896.

ON the 29th of December last, Dr. Jameson started on his famous expedition. Yesterday completed the seventh month since then. In the meantime, he had been a prisoner of the Boer Government and by them delivered over to the British authorities; his raid had been examined into before a magistrate and he had stood committed; a grand jury had indicted him; and now, at the end of a seven days' trial, he goes away to jail, a prisoner under sentence of the law of his own country.

The first day of his trial opened ominously for him and his companions; for (whether by coincidence or design) the report of the investigating committee of the House of Assembly of Cape Colony was, on that very day, given out, incriminating Cecil Rhodes with the raid, and throwing new light on the deliberate nature of its origin; and later in the week—before the case of the subordinate had gone into the hands of a sympathizing and reluctant jury—the House of Assembly had heard their committee's report and condemned the principal. "His aim," said Mr. Schreiner, his friend and late associate, in moving for confirmance, "was high. I wish it had been a right one." This condemnation of Rhodes by the members of the Cape Parliament was surprisingly high-minded. There was something Brutus-like in their sorrowful determination to do exact justice upon their first citizen. The trial concluded in London yesterday was of a distinction no less eminent.

At the close of the inquiry before the magistrate on June 15, and on their subsequent commitment, the prisoners, Jameson, Willoughby, Grey, Robert White, Henry White, and Coventry, were promptly indicted by the grand jury for violation of the Foreign Enlistment Act; and the Attorney-General, in view of the remarkable character of the case—the second under the Act—demanded a trial at bar before the Queen's Bench Division of the High Court of Justice, the most august tribunal in England. The motion was granted, and the court took the precaution of assigning to the trial the Lord Chief Justice and the two senior puisne judges of the Queen's Bench Division, in order to obtain an authoritative decision in the first instance on the difficult points of law certain to arise. The place of trial was laid in the court of the Lord Chief Justice himself, who lately succeeded Lord Coleridge, and is perhaps still better known to Americans than he. Lord Russell of Killowen, as he is now styled, was, till his promotion to the bench, Sir Charles Russell, the leading English advocate; the champion of Parnell; the English counsel before the Bering Sea Tribunal. Baron Pollock is probably the first living writer upon English law, and his Harvard doctorate is scarce a year old. Mr. Justice Hawkins is also a jurist of eminence, who played a distinguished part in the prosecution of the Claimant. The prosecution was conducted by the Attorney-General in person, assisted by the Solicitor-General; and the defence was sustained by the four present leaders of the English bar—Sir Edward Clarke, Sir Frank Lockwood, Mr. Carson, and Mr. Gill.

The trial opened on July 20th. Sir Edward Clarke exhausted the first day of the session with a motion to quash the indictments, on grounds so technical as to be hard to follow, but to the general effect that they did not allege matters (especially those relating to the Enlistment Act) with sufficient particularity. The Court took time for counsel, as it did with every point of law raised thereafter, and upheld the indictments. As the Chief Justice said, the objections and the cases cited in their support properly belonged "to a time when the right and justice and the substance of the thing were sacrificed to the science of artificial statement." After this decision and on the second day of the trial, the jury was empanelled and sworn. It was a "special jury"—that is, one drawn from a carefully chosen panel of talesmen—but the swiftness of its selection was in wonderful contrast to the inquisition which a jury trial of equal importance would commence with in America. A juror asked to be excused because he was a personal friend of one of the defendants. "A very proper reason why you should be excused," answered the Chief Justice. That was all. The others were accepted without a challenge for any cause, yet the case could not have been a more notorious one.

The Attorney-General's opening was long, earnest, and convincing. He recited the now well known facts in the order of their proposed proof, adding that they were practically admitted by the defence, except as to the construction to be put upon them. He showed the necessity for a statute forbidding expeditions against a friendly state, and concluded by urging that it "was all the more incumbent upon persons who, like the defendants, were in the responsible position of *de facto* governors of the country—magistrates and administrators as some of them were—that they should obey and enforce the provisions of this statute," instead of combining to violate them. He then proceeded to his proofs, which, with no obstructive interruptions by the defence, and very little cross-examination, occupied nearly three days—a part of Tuesday and Friday and all of Wednesday and Thursday. The evidence was largely documentary, and the court became almost deserted while treaties, proclamations, orders in council, and other dulnesses were being read in order to establish the somewhat elementary proposition that the South African Republic was, in 1895, a friendly state, and the more technical one that Mafeking and Pitsani were places within the scope of the Foreign Enlistment Act. Others of the documents were more entertaining, if only as a tale worth a second telling.

At the close of the case for the Crown, the defence moved to dismiss, on the ground that the prosecution had failed to prove that the Foreign Enlistment Act was in force either at Mafeking or Pitsani, the two places from which the expedition started — a motion promptly denied, on the ground that the Act had been in force at the first place, and that, as all the defendants had been concerned in the fitting out of the expedition, it was immaterial whether the Act had been actually in force in the latter place or not. (This question, whether the Act had been in force at Pitsani, was subsequently put to the jury by way of precaution and answered by them affirmatively.) Under the English law, the defendants were precluded from testifying in their own behalf; but even had it been otherwise, the facts put in evidence by the Crown were incapable of rebuttal, and almost of palliation. So the defence did not attempt to make a case, but only to modify the harshness of facts which they had to admit proven. They could have called members of the expedition not under indictment, as the Attorney-General pointed out, but they contented themselves with going to the jury on the prosecution's evidence and two very ingenious speeches of counsel, who drew a vivid picture—quite unsupported by facts—of a "peaceful expedition," marching secretly in order to avoid trouble, with benevolent and "pure motives," to the help of those "striving to be free." "Would any men of the defendants' military experience dream of starting out with but five hundred men to attack the Transvaal Repub-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

lic?" This plea was made before a crowded court on the second Monday of the trial, by the ablest counsel at the English bar, and addressed to a jury anxious to believe; but the Attorney-General's crushing rejoinder was unnecessary: there was no truth behind all this sentimental eloquence.

The Lord Chief Justice contemptuously brushed it aside when, on the following day, after due reflection and consultation with his colleagues, he charged the jury, in terms remarkable not only for condensation of tedious and multitudinous detail, but for the relentless way in which he held the jury up to their duty, telling them that the Court had already accepted responsibilities still more onerous. Such a charge in such a case was worthy of the greatest traditions of the English bench. Public opinion, even as expressed by those newspapers which shrink a little from certain of its allusions, more flattering to the Boers than pleasing to Englishmen, seems unanimous in this view, for a judge less able and less masterful might have allowed the case to end in an impotent failure of decision, familiar to us in certain semi-political trials. Beginning with the observation that "in most criminal charges the consequences of the criminal offence usually end with . . . the acts that constitute the crime," but that the consequences of such an offence as this no one might foresee, the Chief Justice charged the jury that the facts of the case were as uncontroverted as they were notorious. He indignantly scouted the defence's continued plea for the raiders as rescuers (showing that quite up to the date of departure the column's destination was in doubt as between Pretoria and Johannesburg) or as peaceful evangelists of reform. The expedition was a "filibustering raid," he said, "even if it was not aimed at overthrowing the Republic, or was prompted by philanthropic and humane motives, or aimed at securing some reform of the law"; and whether it proceeded "by a show of force or by actual force." "If these things were done by the authority of the Queen . . . it would be an act of war." He then laid down the law as to the Act with the greatest strictness, making it effective to enforce a neutrality not secured by the law of any other country. So it is henceforth to be a violation of the Act to fit out on British soil an expedition against any State, no matter whether it starts or not; nor whether its promoters were on British soil while organizing it; nor whether its members took employment in it without responsibility for its organization.

At the close of this tremendous application of the law to the uncontroverted facts, there could be but one outcome to the case. Nevertheless, the Court very shrewdly put to the jury, as a preliminary to the usual demand for a verdict, three questions, which could be answered only in the affirmative: Had any of the defendants been engaged in the preparation of a military expedition against a friendly State? had any of them abetted in it? had any of them been employed by it? The foreman of the jury, shirking the inevitable, asked if the jury might be excused from answering these questions; but the Court's guarded permission left the jury no more comfortable solution, so, after an hour's deliberation, they concluded to answer the questions, and did so in the affirmative as to all the defendants, adding that "the state of affairs at Johannesburg presented great provocation." That, said the Chief Justice, is a verdict of guilty; and he directed the jury so to find. "We have answered your Lordship's questions categorically," replied the foreman evasively. The Court was repeating the direction when Sir Edward Clarke interposed—perhaps remembering the success of Erskine's famous interruption on a somewhat different occasion. "I cannot allow it, Sir Edward, I cannot allow it," said the Chief Justice, with great warmth. Then, addressing the jury: "Gentlemen, I direct you that in point of law that amounts to a verdict of guilty." The foreman said apologetically that they had answered the questions, but could not agree on a verdict. With a sternness seldom used even in English courts, the Chief Justice repeated his direction, saying that such weakness was unmanly; and after a further consultation, the jury most reluctantly obeyed him.

There was a great sensation in the court when the trial ended, for the fashionable set and the people of the music-halls had deluded themselves into expecting something better, and were deeply disappointed. The defendants for their part bore themselves like men. They directed their counsel not to contest the case further, but to ask for sentence, which was done, and the Chief Justice pronounced the sentences with much gravity. They were severe, but not the maximum provided in the Act—Dr. Jameson, fifteen months' imprisonment; Sir John Willoughby, ten months'; Hon. Robert White, seven; Col. Grey, Col. Henry White, and Major Coventry, five each. The imprisonment is to be without hard labor, but the sentence forfeits all the prisoners' royal commissions. While the commitments were being made out, the prisoners were allowed ample time to bid their admirers and friends good-bye; and in the early evening they were hurried away to Holloway Gaol, hearing with unconcealed annoyance the last demonstration of the street in their favor.

Now that treason hath not prospered, it has become all of a sudden possible to call it treason. The newspapers, which very properly did not comment on the trial until its conclusion, approve its conduct and its result unstintedly. Without withdrawing all sympathy from the raiders, the raid itself is now unsparingly condemned. "Criminal," says the *Times*; "mad," says the *Telegraph*; "disastrous blunder," says the Tory *Standard*; and all the other papers acquiesce, even taking a certain pleasure in the Roman justice meted out to men so prominent—in "our ability and willingness to lick our own dogs," as an M. P. puts it in an interview. Wonder of wonders, there is hardly a murmur against the wicked Krüger; nay, it is even suggested in some quarters that it would be like that wise and clement old man to urge the pardon of these fine fellows, now that the law has been vindicated! Such a reversal of public opinion in a space of time so short is most unusual; and without robbing Krüger of credit for bringing it about, we cannot but admire the incorruptible energy of the Government in punishing such powerful partisans of their own for a crime so popular. At a time when character and morals seem more than ever divorced from public life, such manliness revives belief in representative government. L. McK. G.

MARSHAL CASTELLANE.—III.

PARIS, July 30, 1896.

CASTELLANE spent the greater part of the end of the reign of Louis XVIII. in Spain, where he commanded a brigade of the French army of occupation. He seems to have had a good understanding with the inhabitants, and preserved the strictest discipline among his troops. He was recalled abruptly at the end of 1827, and his Journal becomes interesting as precursive of the Revolution of 1830. Castellane saw clearly how Charles X. was making himself unpopular. He entered openly the ranks of the Constitutional Opposition, and in his department voted for its candidates. He began to pay court regularly to the Duke of Orleans. The ministerial changes of that period have lost their interest for us, and Castellane is almost unreadable in this part of his work. He is bitter against what was then called the "Congregation," the priest party, which actually led Charles X. to the abyss. The King believed only in the Congregation; he worked in secret against his constitutional ministers. "The reunion of the Duke d'Havré is composed of congregationists, of bishops, of the court party; it is the assembly of the *ganaches* and the short-sighted men." Polignac's accession to power was the triumph of the Congregation; it was also the beginning of the end.

Charles X. had entered upon a phase of religiosity which blinded his eyes to realities. When Admiral Duperré took leave of him in setting out on the expedition to Algiers, he explained the difficulties of the undertaking. "I think," said he, "that I must make this explanation to your Majesty, in order, if any misfortune happens, that the commander of the fleet or the commander of the expedition may not be unjustly blamed." "Admiral," answered the King, "I keep in my heart my brave soldiers and sailors; you may be sure that if the misfortunes you speak of should happen, I would not forget my subjects in my prayers, and you, Admiral, in particular; we should meet again in a better world." The Admiral was strangely surprised; he did not expect this royal "De profundis."

Castellane was at the baths of Mont-Dore when Charles X. made the famous *ordonnances*, which caused a revolution. "The papers have brought us the deplorable ordinances of July 25, which abolish liberty of the press, dissolve the newly elected Chamber of Deputies, and convoke another chamber which will be elected according to a new electoral ordinance; in one word, the Constitution and all the laws are violated. The dynasty is putting itself in peril for the fun of the thing. . . . Everybody here is indignant." The news of the Revolution soon arrived at Mont-Dore; Castellane returned to Paris, and found at Clermont-Ferrand the National Guards organizing themselves as they did all over France. On the 7th of August he paid his first visit to the new King, Louis Philippe. "I have seen the King, who told me that he was conscious of having done nothing to arrive at power. This is in harmony with words long ago attributed to him: he did not wish to dethrone Charles X., but, if the crown fell to the ground, he would pick it up. The new Queen was joyous, the Duke de Chartres radiant; he gave his hand to all the officers of his regiment, saying, 'On a day like this, we must shake hands.'" Castellane employed himself chiefly in protecting the regulations of the army; he inspected a great region of France, and maintained wherever he went the discipline which had been somewhat shaken immediately after the Revolution. Some regiments had dismissed unpopular officers; non-commissioned officers had been appointing officers by vote. Castellane put an end to such things throughout his command.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

When General Belliard announced in Vienna to the Emperor Francis the change which had taken place in France, the Emperor said to him: "I will recognize Louis Philippe, but it is bad for him not to have legitimacy on his side; it is a great support for a throne. Charles X. deserved his fate, as he was not faithful to his word. A sovereign must ponder well before making concessions to the people; once made, he must submit to them. . . . Young Napoleon is a distinguished young man; I know that I could with him do much harm to Louis Philippe, but such a thing is far from my mind. I have had him brought up as a stranger to France." We find much in the Journal about the difficulties of the new Government, about Lafayette, who was commander-in-chief of the National Guards, and who had assumed somewhat the position of a Warwick; about M. Thiers, who was at the beginning of his extraordinary career. To many people this part of the Journal will be very interesting, as it shows us the "nouvelles couches" which had come into the ascendant in society—the "couches bourgeoises," which took the place of the Legitimists of the Faubourg St.-Germain. Castellane is rather severe in his judgments on men and women, but I have never found him inaccurate as to the facts, of which I know something.

Placed at the head of the first brigade of a division of infantry at Valenciennes, Castellane was naturally called to take part in the campaign in Belgium in 1832. The French army, which had to protect the new kingdom, was placed under the command of Marshal Gérard. The frontier was crossed on November 15, 1832, and the army took the road to Antwerp, which was still in the hands of the Dutch. Castellane notes that the French troops, though they came in the character of liberators, were received with little enthusiasm. "We received the coldest possible reception passing through Brussels; the enthusiasm was limited to a few boys, who escorted us for several kilometres. We were at Malines at five o'clock in the evening. The town is beautiful. It was Sunday, and there were many people out. There was no cry of any sort." Antwerp was defended with the greatest obstinacy by General Chassé, a soldier of great experience, who had made many campaigns under the Empire. The French princes took a brilliant part in the operations of the siege, which was very protracted. "The Duke de Nemours was in the trenches, covered with the dust of a shell; he did not make a motion. The two Princes are very brave. . . . I found in the trenches the Duke of Orleans, with Generals Baudrand, Flahault, Marbot [the Marbot of the Memoirs], and several others. I asked him not to accompany me to the trenches, and told him that I knew them well; he replied that it was his duty, and that he would fulfil it. . . . The fire was hot; the Prince got on the banquettes to look at the city with his glass. The Duke of Orleans exposed himself constantly, more than was necessary." Castellane, though he scolded the Prince for his excess of intrepidity, evidently conceived a great admiration for him. The Prince had very fascinating manners, and it is evident that he became Castellane's idol; he took an extraordinary interest in whatever related to the army, especially as he believed that, sooner or later, liberal France, the France of July, would have to make war against a new coalition. Castellane, from the time of the siege of Antwerp, looked upon the Duke of Orleans as the man, the King of the future; he tied his fortunes to him. He little knew at Antwerp what the future had in store for the brilliant Prince, full of courage and of patriotic ardor.

The siege of Antwerp, in which Castellane took a very honorable part, ended in the capitulation of Gen. Chassé and his Dutch troops. He was appointed lieutenant-general on his return to Paris. Some time afterwards he was placed at the head of the Division of the Pyrenées-Orientales at Perpignan, where he reëstablished order in the town and discipline in the garrison. He remained nearly fourteen years at Perpignan, where he had hoped to stay only a few months. From time to time he revisited Paris, where he always made a collection of anecdotes. In all his journeys he relates with care his interviews with the King. In 1836 he urged the King to make an expedition into Spain and to occupy Barcelona and Catalonia, so as to have more influence in the peninsula and to defend France against revolutionary contagion. Louis Philippe answered: "Whether Don Carlos or the Republic rule in Spain, I will not meddle with it"; and he spoke of the sad situation of Spain, and the impossibility of governing with a king in the cradle and a queen on the throne. He dilated on the advantage which France had of having a governing king, saying that the Périers and the Broglies would have been nothing without him. "The King speaks with facility; he is eloquent and remarkably well informed."

It was mortifying for Castellane to form a succession of regiments in his division at Perpignan, and to see them led to Algeria. His work, he says, was that of Penelope. Changarnier, Canrobert, Forey served under him; to have served in Castellane's division was a sort of brevet. Castellane was the first who gave detailed notes every year on the officers of his division; he professed to have the faculty of picking out the best men; his notes were written in a very racy and original style. Castellane was only once sent over to Africa; he was designated to command the province of Oran, and received the submission of some Arab tribes, but he made no important expedition, returned to France, and was again sent to Perpignan. The conquest of our African colony was really made, assured, and completed without him, and he saw by degrees officers who had been under his orders rise in the army and become its pride and hope.

He was admitted to the House of Peers at the beginning of 1838, and in consequence had to remain oftener and longer in Paris. His Journal is a not uninteresting document on the state of society in France between the years 1838 and 1848, a period on which not much has been written of an anecdotical character. There are in this part of the Journal many touches which could be used to advantage by a historian, concerning the King, the members of his family, the ministers, the public men of the day, the leaders of fashion, the members of the Opposition, the generals. M. Thiers is generally treated with severity; but the same may be said of almost all the parliamentary leaders of the time.

The fourth and last volume of the Journal extends from 1847 to 1852; it abounds in anecdotes on French society; it is also interesting in a political sense, as it describes accurately the state of France after the Revolution of 1848, the rule of Cavaignac, and the Presidency of Prince Napoleon, the Coup d'État of December, and the establishment of the Second Empire. Castellane, during this troublous period, remains what he has always been: he is consistent, he does not follow any particular political doctrines, he continues faithful to *one* thing, the army, its traditions, its discipline, its regulations—I might add, its uniforms, as for him the uniform is the symbol of the army. He was fortunate enough to preserve order in the great city of Rouen, where he had been sent in 1847, during the unsettled days which followed the Revolution of 1848; he was afterwards sent to Bordeaux and to Lyons. He showed himself constantly in uniform amidst the most revolutionary quarters of Lyons; he obliged all the officers in the army of Lyons to wear their uniforms at all times; he kept his troops in constant movement, he imposed the strictest discipline on them. His pluck, his thoroughness, in the end made him quite popular in Lyons, though he was openly hostile to the revolutionists. The Prince President used this popularity for his benefit; he could find no adversary in the ancient aide-de-camp of the Emperor Napoleon. Castellane was appointed Senator in the new Senate in February, 1852; he received the baton of a Marshal of France from the hands of Napoleon III., at the time of the marriage of the Emperor with Mademoiselle de Montijo. A few weeks before, he wrote in his Journal: "This young person, who is reported to be twenty-six years old, is tall and very agreeable. They say that she has touched the heart of the Emperor. She is a grandee of Spain. She has a bad cold." And so the Journal runs on to the finish. Castellane at last became like the mere figurehead of a ship; his colleagues, Canrobert, MacMahon, fought the battles of the Empire. They also saw the last of its triumphs. Castellane was fortunate to the end; he did not see the third invasion of France.

Correspondence.

THE FARMER AND FINANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The eagerness and unanimity with which the farmers of the South, the Southwest, and the West embrace the free-silver heresy is an interesting phenomenon, viewed from its historic and sociological side, as well as painful when viewed in its economic aspect. Roughly speaking, it may be said that the craze has developed chiefly in those regions which are in the borderland between the centres of civilization and the frontier. Historically, it may be said that the farming classes of the South have always lived in an atmosphere of credit, from the old colonial times down to the present. The fertility of the country, the presence of negro slaves, and inherited traits from their English landholding ancestry may help to account for this, but the fact cannot be disputed. As regards the emigrants from the Northern States who settled in the West, the conditions were different. The sterility of the New England soil produced the proverbial New England thrift, though this was true in a less marked degree of the settlers from New York and Pennsylvania. But in passing to the unoccupied West and occupying its fertile lands (had almost for the asking), the necessity for the small economies, thrift, and watchful prudence necessary in older communities, disappeared in a large degree. Those were the halcyon days for the squatter, the prospector, the speculator, the emigrant farmer. "Everything went"; it was "Take your chances" and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"Hurrah, boys!" Money was made fast and easily. Broad acres were had for a song; good crops were raised, and sold at good prices; the financial atmosphere was one of joy, hope, exuberant expectation. Farmers launched out widely and wildly, bought expensive machinery, often beyond their needs, often beyond their ability to utilize. Loans were easy, and many farmers contracted debts when, economically, considering the circumstances, there was no real need of more capital; nor were such loans always used as capital.

In the meantime the means of transportation were improving, new lands were coming into competition with those recently settled, all the old lands were taken up, while the farming lands abroad poured their produce into the world's market, till the Western farmer found his produce gave him less money, his creditors desired to realize on their loans, and, to make a long story short, the "boom" collapsed, as all booms have a way of doing. The farmer was pinched for money—for ready money. Some people had money and he had not; he was amazed, sore, envious. He could not understand that his boom was gone, and at the same time other people had ready money. Now the Western farmer generally has very little ready money on hand; unlike the dweller in cities, he is not continually handling cash, for rent, for car fare, for gas bills, for groceries, etc. He gets his money in a lump at harvest time, and runs "tick" at the country store till his produce is sold. Hence money, cold cash, is different in his eyes from what it is in the eyes of those who habitually handle cash. To the Western farmer there is something mysterious about a bank, a mint, a clearing-house, and all the machinery of exchange. Nor does he understand that the loans which he got in former years were the aggregate of small savings and scrapings of persons of thrifty and prudent dispositions. He sees only the lump sums sent out from the East in the hands of the agent of some large Eastern concern, which held this money in trust for the original savers. Hence he gets erroneous ideas about capitalists and money in general.

A mechanic or wage-worker in the towns, on the other hand, gets his pay every week or month, and he is continually learning to make both ends meet; he balances accounts every week or month; he learns that he must make his income tally with his expenses twelve or fifty-two times a year, or be ruined. The farmer balances his accounts once a year, actually does not know in advance what his income will be, and, moreover, he has his farm as an asset, which the mechanic has not. And, too, the farmer, isolated from contact with human society, is but a child in economic matters. When he gets his money he is like a child who has a dollar to spend—it burns in his pocket till it is spent. We will suppose that he annually pays up his grocery and other bills with the proceeds of his wheat, corn, and hogs; he then has a few dollars left, which do not last him through the year. And then comes the rub—he has no cash, no money. The boom times of old have gone; no one is begging him to take money, and he gets less money for his produce. "Money, money, money" is the cry. Other people, who have no land, no horses, cows, pigs, sheep, have money for current expenses, and he has none. He can't understand it: he has property but no money. On comes the silver man and says he will change all that. Money shall be plentiful again, he will restore the old boom times, and there shall be plenty of money in the country—lots of it, money to burn! The poor simple farmer "bites" at this scheme as he "bites" at windmill patents, gold-brick schemes, tin chest rackets, green goods, and in fact anything, from patent medicines to Hungarian oats. There seems no limit to his "biting."

Now the wage-earner in the towns must pay his rent or be turned into the street; he must pay his grocer or starve; and he must pay cash for his ready-made clothes. He has no farm to fall back on. His assets are a few articles of furniture and a dollar or so in a bank or coöperative association. But the point is that he is continually balancing accounts and has actually nothing to fall back on except his own savings. With the farmer (the squatter farmer) it is different. He has no rent to pay; he produces the means of subsistence and can't starve, and his wife can sell enough eggs and butter to buy salt, tea, sugar, coffee, and cloth enough to keep the family from violating the laws of decency. And, most of all, the farmer has his farm to fall back on, and that farm cost him almost nothing—a gift from the Government. That is, the Government practically donated to the farmer the means of running into debt. It would have been difficult for a government to hit upon an expedient better fitted to raise up a class of imprudent, shiftless debtors than our land system has done. Perhaps the worst feature of the whole affair is the conviction in the farmer's mind that he is as good as any other man, or a little better, and is born with the same amount of knowledge of finance and political economy that any other man has at present, by whatever means acquired. If he doesn't know, he doesn't care. That is exactly what Andrew Jackson's followers said when it was proved that their candidate was wofully ignorant of the duties and responsibilities of the office to which it was proposed to elect him. That same feeling decides half our elections.

It is easy to understand how it came about that the farmer is pinched financially, and to understand his nature and disposition; but the most discouraging feature to a believer in democracy is the farmer's utter disregard for and willing, conscious ignorance of the experience of other nations in the same field—the unwillingness to listen to the counsel of men who have devoted years of study to the very questions that the farmer is trying to solve in his own blundering way. A surprisingly large part of American voters have never heard of the experience of other nations with silver, and do not want to know; and, if told of it, would repudiate the idea that America could learn from Europe or South America. And yet our national honor, integrity, if not very existence, depend on the decision of these same agricultural classes. This is Jeffersonian Democracy with a vengeance.

E. L. C. M.

Chicago, July 31, 1896.

THE THRIFTY FARMER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of July 30, under the heading "The Plight of the Western Farmer," you make some very rational comments upon a letter which you say was published in the *Evening Post*—which letter, I judge, must have pictured the condition of the Western farmer as deplorable.

I live at the county seat of Jackson County, Missouri, and have lived there for more than thirty years; therefore I personally know many of the farmers of the county. I believe I can assert, without any fear of contradiction by honest and competent observers, that all of them who have a fair degree of intelligence, and are industrious and economical, are prosperous. It is, or should be, a matter of common knowledge that many of the Western farmers are ignorant and thriftless, without any disposition or power to adjust themselves to the modern changed conditions of farming. Since the propaganda for free silver was begun, it is the common practice of silver cranks and demagogues to descant upon the condition of the farmer, and to draw lurid pictures representing that condition as one of steadily increasing poverty.

I recently had occasion, as a lawyer, to examine the title to forty acres of land which a farmer of this county was buying at $50 per acre, as a good investment for his surplus capital. I had the following conversation with him:

Q. You must be doing well farming to be able to buy more land? A. Yes, I am making money, and have been for the last five or six years.

Q. Make this money on your farm? A. Yes.

Q. What do you now make the most money on? A. Sheep.

Q. Why, I thought there was no money in sheep since the tariff was taken off of wool? A. That is all stuff. Wool is the smallest part of it. Make some more money when wool is high, but make plenty when it is low. Sold my last wool at 10 cents a pound, but got $2.50 each for lambs.

The man is just a plain, ordinary, hard-working farmer.

William S. Flournoy.

Independence, Mo., August 2, 1896.

HEALTHY SYMPTOMS IN CALIFORNIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I notice, in your issue of July 23, the opinion that the "masses of the Democratic party" have no financial convictions, and that their vote will go almost entirely to Bryan unless another Democratic candidate is set up.

In our small rural community, which is at almost the greatest possible distance from Wall Street, there have already come forward a number of Democratic farmers who have declared their intention to vote for McKinley, and some of them have joined the newly formed McKinley Club of the valley. These men formed their intention to withdraw their support from the Democratic ticket, in case of the adoption of a free-silver platform, before the Chicago convention had acted. This decision was made as the result of their private reflections, or of the influence of one on another; and, while none of them are students of financial science, they have at least the conviction that the success of the silver people would be a bad thing.

It is impossible to estimate the force and volume of the many currents of thought and feeling that may act on our people between now and election day, for the subject of contention cannot be clearly grasped by the general voter, and he is therefore much at the mercy of whatever arguments may forcibly attract his attention. The perplexity of the situation will keep a good many honest men from voting, because they cannot tell what is right. But I think that the number of quiet voters among the Democratic masses who will transfer their ballots to McKinley on account of their disapproval of the Chicago programme will amount to an important percentage, and I have strong hopes that California may be

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

gained by this means to the support of sound money.

Our "masses" are not homogeneous, and there is apparent this year much activity of individual opinion and of purpose to vote independently of party direction.

E. S. THACHER.

NORDHOFF, VENTURA CO., CAL., July 31, 1896.

SILVER AND THE FORCE BILL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Conversation with men from Virginia and other Southern States satisfies me that many McKinley votes from Democrats can be made by proper assurance, from authorized sources, that the South need not dread a renewal of the Reconstruction and Force-bill horrors. If the attention of the McKinley managers or of McKinley himself is not called to the importance of such assurance, the absurdities of the silver heresy will not weigh with men who honestly, if gratuitously, dread the possibilities of a recovered domination by a too long disappointed party, whose history reads to them as a record of outrage upon their liberties.

As the importance of the issue demands that the question should be discussed from every point of view, with arguments addressed to every form of opposition or misgiving, I hope you will not overlook the claims implied by this aspect of the situation. Your teachings on the financial significance of the impending election are invaluable; but they need, to meet the situation in full, some patient instruction and encouragement as to the present relations of the two great parties to the various sections of the country—especially to the South.

Yours respectfully, CHRYSOSTOM.

VIRGINIA, August 7, 1896.

THE TWO CABINETS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many "Sound-Money" Democrats will, in November, vote for Mr. McKinley because of the relative positions of the Democratic and Republican parties on the money question. There is another question which, it seems to me, is an additional reason for supporting him, but which has not as yet received the attention it deserves. Mr. McKinley, if elected, will have at his command, from whom to choose his Cabinet, the ablest, safest, and most experienced men of his party. It is not to be supposed that he will ignore these men. Whatever objection, then, may be urged against him personally—and it must be admitted that he is not a strong man—one can with reason look for him to have wise counsellors, and therefore a safe administration.

Mr. Bryan, on the other hand, will have the least reliable, most unsafe, and most inexperienced men of his party from whom to choose a Cabinet. The strongest men among the Democrats are, without exception, so far as I now recall, in the "gold wing" of the party. Although some of these men are supporting the Chicago nominees, it is not for a moment to be supposed that Mr. Bryan will recognize them in making up his Cabinet or in filling important positions of any kind. The election of Mr. Bryan, then, would be to place the domestic and foreign affairs and the diplomatic service of the United States in the hands of inferior men—men whose declared belief is that "this country is old enough, big enough, and strong enough to go it alone; and we want the nations of the world—England especially—to know that we do not care a fig for what they think, say, or do; we shall do as we please."

With such a ruling spirit, Mr. Bryan's administration would be thoroughly unsafe, and it is not difficult to conceive of the complications that might arise should he be the occupant of the White House during the next four years.—Yours respectfully, G. S. W.

GREENSBORO, N. C., August 3, 1896.

CROWN POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Ford's very interesting communication to the *Nation* of July 30, and its accompanying French account of Braddock's defeat, recalled to my mind the annexed contemporary English account of some facts connected with the more successful expedition against Canada until Montcalm checked for a time the advancing British at Forts Oswego and George. The account I send you was enclosed in a letter written by John Hardman of Liverpool, England, to the Duke of Newcastle. The original is in the British Museum (Add. MSS. 32,860 f 301), and is mentioned in the list of colonial manuscripts furnished the *Nation* last autumn by one of its London correspondents. Although the document does not contain the special information I had hoped to find in it (your correspondent having inadvertently stated that it was written at Newberry, South Carolina), still it may prove of some interest in connection with Mr. Ford's valuable material. B. J. RAMAGE.

UNIVERSITY OF THE SOUTH,
SEWANEE, TENN., August 4, 1896.

NEWBERRY Septemr 1755.

We have just recd news from our friends at Crown point. The French Army consisting of five thousand French and five hundred Indians met our Army consisting of three thousand men at the great carrying place this side lake Sacrament about Sixty miles this side Crown point after a sharp and bloody engagement which lasted Six hours. We had killed one hundred and thirty men and Sixty wounded. Coll. Titcomb & fifty of his Regiment were killed and the first Capt of the Mowhawks. We have taken the french general who came from France this Summer, killed the Lieutenant General & his Aid du Camp, kill'd one thousand of the French & a great number of Indians kill'd & taken most of their Officers & entirely routed them.

We are reinforcing our Army every day & in twelve or fifteen days they will be eight thousand strong When no doubt we shall proceed to Crown Point & if a war probably to Montreal. We expect by this the Governour is at Niagara.

This account may be depended on. We have taken a french Brigantine in lake Ontario bound to Niagara.

WANTED—A NEWS CHRONICLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I find in my last number of the *Nation* reference to a number of important events of which I find no account in the other newspapers. And this is my constant experience. The *Nation* does not pretend to give the news of the day, but only to comment upon it. I take the weekly editions of two of the leading New York papers for the sake of getting the news, the facts as to what is going on in the world. But I don't get it. I had the same difficulty when I was living in New York and read the daily papers. This is partly because much of the important news comes by telegraph in scraps and fragments from day to day, and is never presented in clear and good form, but has to be picked out from a mass of unimportant matter which requires a degree of daily care and attention that a busy man cannot always give, partly because the prominent place in the paper is usually given to worthless trash, and the really important news omitted or packed away in fine print in obscure corners where it is apt to be overlooked; and partly because the political news is often garbled for partisan purposes.

Would it not pay if somebody would publish once a week a journal of contemporary history, in a form adapted for binding and preservation, containing an account of what is going on in the world, not only in American and foreign politics, but in science, art, literature, and other departments of human activity, arranged under proper heads in a clear and orderly manner, and with such explanations as might be needed to make it intelligible? It should leave out the murders, petty larcenies, elopements, and wife-beatings, and the guesses of Mr. This and Mr. That as to how the next election will go. It should be of the nature of serious history, intended to have a permanent historical and literary value. It would of course have to be written for intelligent people. Only such would care for it. Its circulation would therefore not be large; but then it need not be in order to pay. The news would cost nothing, and perhaps one man could do all the work. A few thousand subscribers would make it profitable. I for one would willingly pay for such a publication several times as much as I now pay for all the newspapers that I take put together. It seems to me that in the English-speaking world there must be enough people who feel as I do to make such an enterprise pecuniarily successful. I wish the *Nation* would undertake it.—Very truly yours,

HENRY T. TERRY.

TOKIO, JAPAN, July 12, 1896.

THE ART OF EASY MARCHING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your note in the *Nation* of July 23 on a new art of walking introduced by an officer in the French army recalls to my mind the fact that this method, which you describe as consisting "in not fully straightening up the leg at the moment when it is perpendicular to the ground, and in dragging out the leg that remains behind to its full length," is universally practised by the cargo-carriers of Central America when on a long march. I encountered this first in the Cuicuina district of Nicaragua. We had reached the head of canoe navigation, and were preparing for our journey on foot across the mountains. My wife and I started out alone upon the trail in advance of our *cargadores*, who had not yet arranged their packs. We had gone less than half a mile when we saw a half-breed advancing with a rapid gliding motion which was neither a walk nor a run. We thought he must be bearing important news from the interior, and questioned him eagerly, but he was only coming, he said, to help Don Juan, the guide of our expedition. Later in the day our men overtook us, all proceeding in the same fashion, heavily laden with luggage and provisions. Subsequently we constructed a saddle-chair in which my wife was carried on the back of one of these men, and her testimony was that the motion was absolutely free from jar, and that it was one of the easiest methods of transportation on land that she had ever experienced.

The traveller in these remote regions is com-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

pelled, willy-nilly, to acquire this art of progression, or be dropped out of his party. The *cargadores* will walk no other way. It certainly is less fatiguing and more rapid. I have known one of these mountain porters to travel twenty miles in a day of twelve hours, carrying a pack weighing 100 pounds, the trail being obstructed with fallen timber every few yards, ankle-deep in soft clayey mud, and leading over mountains making an aggregate ascent of not less than 3,000 feet in the distance covered, and yet he showed no sign of fatigue, and was ready for equally arduous work on the following day.

COURTENAY DE KALB.

SCHOOL OF MINES, ROLLA, MO.

Notes.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS will be the American publishers of John Murray's new issue of Byron's works in prose and verse, edited by the poet's grandson, the Earl of Lovelace. They announce also Andrew Lang's biography of Lockhart; 'The Rogue's March,' by E. W. Hornung; and 'Mrs. Cliff's Yacht,' by Frank R. Stockton.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will undertake a subscription edition of Bret Harte's works in fourteen volumes.

Another volume of poems by Emily Dickinson is in preparation by Roberts Bros.

D. Appleton & Co. have nearly ready a new novel by Harold Frederic, entitled 'March Hares.'

Jessie Fothergill's 'The First Violin' has been illustrated by G. W. Brenneman of the Salmagundi Club, and will be brought out in two handsome volumes by Brentano's.

From the Typothetæ of the City of New York we are to have next month a literal reprint of Moxon's 'Mechanick Exercises, or the Doctrine of Handy-Works, applied to the Art of Printing,' in two volumes, square octavo, in a limited edition of 250 copies on Holland paper, sold only by subscription.

The Raeburn Book Company, New York, are about to publish 'The Scot in America,' by Peter Ross, LL.D.

Fall announcements of A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, are 'Italy in the 19th Century,' by Mrs. Elizabeth W. Latimer, and 'A Short History of Italy,' by the late Miss Elizabeth S. Kirkland.

The five volumes which make up the "required literature" of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle (Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent), together mark a grade distinctly above that to which we are accustomed in this quarter. Mr. Brownell's 'French Traits' is taken over by arrangement from the Messrs. Scribner; but new are Prof. George B. Adams's compendious 'Growth of the French Nation,' Prof. Herbert A. Howe's readable 'Study of the Sky,' Prof. Tarbell's 'History of Greek Art,' and Prof. Mahaffy's 'Survey of Greek Civilization.' All these manuals except the first are illustrated, noteworthy in point of freshness being the subjects selected by Prof. Tarbell, whose text has solid as well as popular and taking qualities. Of Prof. Mahaffy's work we shall speak a little more at length.

Prof. Richard Lodge, in his 'Richelieu' (Macmillan), has given a very brief account of the career of the famous cardinal, based upon the most recent authorities. The careful and complete edition of Richelieu's letters and state papers by the Vicomte d'Avenel cleared away the innumerable legends which shrouded the real genius of the great French statesman, and made it possible to understand the services which he rendered to his country. The learned editor expressed the results of his researches in his well-known work, 'Richelieu et la Monarchie Absolue.' Owing to these labors the task of Prof Lodge has been comparatively easy. He has followed his trustworthy guide with unswerving fidelity, and his work has been mainly one of condensation. A far more brilliant writer than either D'Avenel or Lodge has been beguiled by political ambition after setting out to write what promised to be the final and conclusive history of Richelieu's career. M. Gabriel Hanotaux, the present French Minister of Foreign Affairs, before his promotion to high political office, published the first volume of a projected life of Richelieu, covering the period of his youth, which, from the beauty of its style, the justness of its historical appreciations, and its admirable use of primary authorities, promised to be a masterpiece. The completion of this book seems to be indefinitely adjourned. Under these circumstances Prof. Lodge has rightly depended for his information upon D'Avenel.

It is difficult to conjecture what class of readers Baron Ferdinand Rothschild expected to interest in his 'Personal Characteristics from French History' (Macmillan). Readers of French memoirs, whether for pleasure or profit, have no desire to see how clumsily piquant French anecdotes can be rendered into bald English. Those who read only English and desire to obtain historical information, will naturally turn to the coherent and accurate works dealing with the subjects in which they are interested, and will be inclined to shun collections of disconnected anecdotes. This is precisely what Baron Rothschild's volume is, despite its somewhat pretentious title. The author has waded through a mass of French memoirs, and selected therefrom the anecdotes and personal incidents which were in his opinion entertaining and instructive. These materials he has arranged for the most part chronologically, but without regard to historical proportion or perspective. The chief fault of the book—a fault, indeed, which it shares with all similar books—lies in the incorrect estimates of men and deeds given by anecdotes chosen with reference to their dramatic interest. This is particularly true in the chapter dealing with the Revolution. Considered merely as a contribution to general literature, however, Baron Rothschild's book has a place, and those who read for diversion will find it a decided improvement on historical novels of the Weyman type; it has the added advantage of being beautifully made up and amply illustrated.

The services of Mr. Malabari in the cause of Indian social reform, especially in promoting the passage of the Age of Consent bill, are sufficiently well known to every one interested in social progress to make the publication, by Mr. R. P. Karkaria, of 'India: Forty Years of Progress and Reform; being a Sketch of the Life and Times of Behramji M. Malabari' (London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan) thoroughly acceptable. The numerous Ramabai Circles established all over the country keep alive a general interest in the condition of Hindu women and the deplorable lot of Hindu widows. Mr. Malabari has been the foremost champion of this cause in India, and his prominence in this respect is his chief title to fame beyond its borders. But his biographer shows that Mr. Malabari is more than a pioneer of social reform; he has written poems, both in English and in the vernacular, which have received high praise from competent critics; he is a philosopher who has reflected deeply and written much on philosophic and religious subjects; and he is perhaps the most accomplished journalist that India has yet produced. For all these reasons his personality deserves to be better known than it is, and Mr. Karkaria's book may be recommended as giving a readable account of the career of the distinguished thinker, reformer, and man of letters.

'Persia Revisited (1895),' by Gen. Sir T. E. Gordon (Edward Arnold), is a timely and interesting book. It is not a mere traveller's account of what he has seen and experienced, but is a series of detached sketches relating to nearly every department of Persian life, drawn from observations made not only during this visit, but also during the author's official residence as attaché to the British Embassy. He gives a more favorable account of the land than we had supposed was justified. He says, for instance, that "the peasantry and laboring classes are fairly well off," and that considerable progress is being made in the construction of roads and in the development of the natural resources of the land. In this activity the Persians themselves are sharing to an increasing extent, though it is mostly due to foreigners. Not only England and Russia, but France and Germany, are seeking to establish commercial relations and to obtain concessions. Belgian capital, even, is represented at Teheran by a tramway company, a glass manufactory, and a beet-sugar factory. The late Shah is commended for his leniency, his hatred of bloodshed, his desire for justice, and his love of peace. His successor "is of kindly disposition, and has pleasing manners," and "there have been occasions on which he showed himself to be a capable ruler," while his Prime Minister is a man of "conspicuous energy and talent." There are some excellent portraits of these men, together with others of characteristic types of the people.

Lt.-Col. Dalbiac's 'Dictionary of Quotations (English)' (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan) does not lack familiar and current lines and passages, but is predominantly an anthology which rather reflects the compiler's own taste in verse and to some extent in prose. This taste cannot be rated highly. Of books of the same class, he says, "there is scarcely one that is at the same time complete, up-to-date, and sufficiently explicit in the matter of references." How any one can be "complete" we are at a loss to imagine; Col. Dalbiac has certainly not incorporated the works of his predecessors with his own. Kipling, Birrell, J. C. Hare, Haweis, Huxley, Morley, Christina Rossetti, Jean Ingelow, William and Lewis Morris, Dobell, Sir Edwin Arnold, Swinburne, and Clough (called *E.* H. on p. 329), make the "up-to-date," we infer, but the quantity of citations from them is relatively small. The references are, indeed, so far as we have tested them, accurate, but not more so or more explicit than in Bartlett's 'Familiar Quotations,' which is more than once referred to by page alone, without mention of the edition. There are thirteen extracts from Vanbrugh, whose name is uniformly misspelled -burgh, though right in the index. In that from Lowell on p. 35, "men" should be man; and an essential hyphen is dropped from Holmes's compound epithet "low-vaulted" on p. 42. George P. Morris is disguised as "George T." on p. 352. We miss any posy from FitzGerald's 'Omar Khayyám.' The ar-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

rangement is much inferior to Bartlett's (by author). A Greek and Latin volume is to follow.

The seventh volume of Mr. Charles Booth's great work on the 'Life and Labor of the People in London' (Macmillan) contains the description of the population according to their trades. While figures are necessarily a prominent feature in this industrial census, it is impossible not to be struck with the admirable manner in which the movement of human life in its manifold activities is described. Many "short and simple annals" are introduced as illustrating the condition of large numbers of the poor, and many of the details of manufacturing and mercantile processes are given. Very few governmental reports will bear comparison with this monument of private enterprise.

The 'Office Central des Oeuvres Charitables,' 175 Boulevard St.-Germain, an association of which the Marquis de Vogüé is president, has recently begun the publication of a series of departmental pamphlets, "La France Charitable et Prévoyante" (Paris: Plon, Nourrit & Cie.), which, when completed, will contain a full list of the charitable institutions, public and private, of all kinds within the limits of the Republic, with brief information concerning the nature, resources, etc., of each. This publication will aid benefactors in determining just how and where their special wishes are most likely to be realized. The nine weekly numbers now at hand sufficiently show the enormous extent and activity of beneficent organizations in France. Taking at random the Department of Sarthe (whose capital is Le Mans), we count 116 institutions for children and adolescents, 104 for adults, and 10 for aged persons. The proportion of private charities is large; of 51 *écoles maternelles*, or *salles d'asile*, for instance, 31 are private, mostly under the direction of sisterhoods. The purposes of the several beneficent foundations are so varied that we can mention only a few of the less common ones. "Des filles exposées mais non vicieuses" are kept from the thirteenth to the twenty-first year; servant girls are cared for till they find employment; a ticket good for a kilogramme of bread is delivered to a man for one hour's labor at breaking stone; released prisoners are assisted in various ways; indigent lovers are helped in complying with marriage formalities, etc., etc. It is apparent from the introductory notice to the work that the utmost care has been exercised in gathering the statistical information from all the departments, and in the presence of such evidence one will hardly cavil with the secretary of the association, M. Léon Lefébure, who, after studying the organization of private charities in England, Germany, and the United States, vindicates for his countrymen the title of "maîtres dans l'art de faire le bien."

Two novel periodicals come to us from the West in the first (August) numbers of *What to Eat*, published at Minneapolis, and *International*, published at Chicago by the Union Quoin Company. The former is an eccentric attempt to combine gastronomy with literature and art; not a few of the illustrations in the text are in color. August bills of fare compete with "Crawford's Nurse," "A Cry from a Confirmed Dyspeptic," "An Epicurean Ballad," "Hints" for the disposition and use of knife and fork, folding of napkin, etc., "The Banquet to Joseph Jefferson," and much else; besides an exposition of Ralstonism, or the new art of health and longevity. The *International* is likewise illustrated, but in a more familiar style. Its aim is, by a competent corps of translators, to glean from the "great wealth of current literature outside the English language, which is, for the most part, entirely lost to us." Subordinate to these selections are accounts of the foreign authors drawn upon (Horn, Zola, Maupassant, Johanna Ambrosius, Sonya Kovalevski), book reviews, and miscellany.

With the April number, the Library Bulletin of Cornell University was discontinued. Its annual record of publications by university officers will hereafter supplement the President's Annual Report. The General Finding-List of the miscellaneous portion of the President White Library is now in press, and a collection of the Fiske Dante collection is nearly ready for the printers. A noticeable recent acquisition for the Cornell Library is the extensive collection of books relating to South America made by the well-known naturalist Herbert H. Smith during his residence in Brazil.

The interest which the French take in the development of their African possessions, especially in the direction of Egypt, is shown by an article in *Annales de Géographie* for July, describing in detail the region forming the frontier between Tunis and Tripoli. It is accompanied by a map. This number also has an account of the Negritos of the East Indies, a race of whose extent, origin, and possible connection with the pigmies of Africa, the author, M. Lapicque, informs us there is much yet to be learned. There are numerous measurements of heads, together with several interesting photographs of individuals. A brief reference is made to the report of the committee on the proposed canal between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. The project is absolutely rejected on account of the expense, which is estimated at from four hundred to five hundred million dollars.

In addition to the usual reports of the excavations at Jerusalem, the Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund contains an interesting discussion of the date of the Exodus, by Capt. Haynes and Col. Conder, in the new light shed upon the subject by Prof. Petrie's recent discovery of an inscribed tablet containing a reference to the children of Israel. Their conclusions are that if the professor's interpretation of the inscription is correct, the Exodus must have taken place nearly three centuries before the time now usually attributed to it. The alternate view, held, we believe, by Prof. Petrie, is that a part of the Hebrews may have remained in Canaan when their brethren emigrated to Egypt. Col. Conder also contributes some notes on the various places mentioned in the 'Onomasticon' of Eusebius.

The scientific world was interested some two years ago by the circumstantial account, in one of Messrs. Chambers' publications, of a landing upon Rockall, that lonely pinnacle rock in the Atlantic, 260 miles northwest of Ireland. Doubtless many vessels that have never been heard of have there met their doom. It was known to have been landed upon on but two occasions—by Basil Hall in 1813, and by a sailor from the *Porcupine* in the fifties. The second account turns out to be entirely drawn from the writer's fancy. A party of scientists in the steamer of the Irish Congested Districts Board, under Mr. Green, have made two unsuccessful attempts this summer. It was thought the island might possibly be the as yet undiscovered nesting-place of the great shearwater (*Puffinus Major*). Although a landing could not, on account of the height of the waves breaking against the seventy-foot cliffs, be effected, enough was seen to warrant the conclusion that Rockall is not the cradle of these sea birds.

—The *Atlantic* numbers among its list of contributors this month no name more distinguished than that of President Gilman, who briefly reviews some features of American colleges and universities, and forecasts the possibilities of their future. His express declaration that among the greatest gains of the period covered by the memoirs of Presidents Barnard and McCosh is "the admission of women to the advantages of higher education, either by coeducation, or by 'annexes,' or by separate foundations," will not be overlooked by the friends of that higher education, ever mindful of the practice of the Johns Hopkins University in rigorously excluding women from any of its benefits (except medical). Where President Gilman leaves off after describing the multiform intellectual activity that should make up the life of the university proper, Prof. Paul Shorey takes up the thread, in an essay on "Present Conditions of Literary Production," and shows how the influence of universities may be expected to extend beyond themselves in spreading far and wide through their graduates a competent literary criticism and a high standard of literary endeavor. While admitting that "the photographing of the present is an estimable and for the time the most flourishing branch of literary craftsmanship," Prof. Shorey asks, in regard to the final claims of veritist literature, the pertinent question, "To what can these laborious inventories of unconcerning things lead?" To this need not be sought an apter answer than is supplied in the same number of the magazine, in the form of a concrete illustration, by Mary Boardman Sheldon's short story of the wasted pains of a realistic novelist, entitled "A Literary Model." To Mrs. James T. Fields has fallen the labor of love of paying a tribute to the memory of Mrs. Stowe.

—A pronounced realist could hardly exhibit himself to better advantage as an idealist than does Mr. W. D. Howells in his article in *Harper's* on "The White Mr. Longfellow." The title of this article, with its adjective borrowed from an epithet applied by the Norsemen, in the early days of their conversion, in their expression "the White Christ," is due to Björnstjerne Björnson; the text consists of Mr. Howells's personal impressions and reminiscences, dating from the beginning of his residence in Cambridge and friendship with Mr. Longfellow, and continuing until the latter's death. As a member of the Dante Club, which met by invitation at Craigie House and included in its number Agassiz, Holmes, and Lowell, Mr. Howells, then, as now, fully sensible of the privilege he enjoyed, ought, he is inclined to think, to have guarded against lapses of memory by notes of the conversations that followed the readings and discussions of the poet's translation. There is, however, no lack of definiteness or consistency in the conception given of Mr. Longfellow's personality, and when next Mr. Howells undertakes the praise of "a perfectly socialized condition of things," he will not find it easy to undo the conviction inspired by this paper that an aristocracy is the most attractive of all forms of society that can be imagined. A serial story, "Tom Sawyer, Detective," by Mark Twain, is begun in this number of *Harper's*, and a short story by John Kendrick Bangs, "The Mayor's Lamps," will find fa-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

vor with many readers on account of a political moral which is relieved by humor from any pressing demands on consideration. Both poetic and dramatic feeling of a high order are evidenced by Laurence Alma-Tadema's one-act play, "The Silent Voice," to which a graceful lyric of fateful significance forms the prologue and epilogue. Edwin A. Abbey supplies two illustrations to this vividly realized sixteenth-century episode.

—The cover of the annual fiction number of *Scribner's* is conspicuous for the success of its ornamental figure-piece, in colors, by Will H. Low. The first article, "On the Trail of Don Quixote," by August F. Jaccaci, though not yet completed, is well chosen as a preliminary recognition of the fiction that is not ephemeral in character. Whatever degree of style or individuality may be lacking in the text of this article is amply made up for in the illustrations by Vierge, which are full of delicacy and suggestiveness. George W. Cable contributes a story of melodramatic coloring, describing in some strong passages a reprobate's final rescue of himself, not by means of any of the orthodox agencies, but by a determined clinging to mother earth. In the story "Charm He Never so Wisely," Eleanor Stuart, while skilfully revolving a nebulously light central idea, has managed to throw off so many bright sayings and happy observations of people and things that her story produces, on the whole, an effect of considerable brilliancy. For the rest it is enough to mention "Mrs. Lofter's Ride" as an amusing satire on fashionable pretentiousness. Of the verse, Clinton Scollard's "In an Alcove" is pleasing in thought and accomplished in expression.

—*Until six months ago, as Prof. Flinders* Petrie explains in the current *Century*, no trace of the Israelites by name or object had been found in Egypt. In February last he discovered the long sought mention of them. The tablet bearing this inscription came to light in a clearance of the site of the tomb of Merenptah at Thebes, and it is a flawless block of fine-grained syenite, or granite, about ten feet high by five wide and over a foot thick. The account of his Syrian campaign, engraved on it by Merenptah, about 1203 B.C., declares that "the people of Israel is spoiled." Near the tablet was found the colored granite bust of the king himself, to whom present indications point as the Pharaoh of the Exodus. These are some of the facts. Prof. Petrie adds a lively imaginary portrait of this "Pharaoh of the Hard Heart," son of Rameses the Great, whose granite tablet, now helping to solve points of such obscurity in the Hebrew history, has been lying face downwards under stone fragments and chips since about the time of the Trojan war. Prof. Petrie's suggestion that any day a tablet or a papyrus may be turned up which will throw some further light on the later years of this monarch points to the exciting side of Egyptology. In an article on "Burnt Wood in Decoration" J. William Fosdick explains some of the improved mechanical aids to, and touches upon the history of, an artistic handicraft of which the merits and decorative possibilities are overlooked on the one hand, and threatened by vulgarization in industrial processes on the other. A number of interesting illustrations are given of Mr. Fosdick's own work, to which have regrettably been added only two from examples of English and Italian burnt-wood work of the sixteenth century. Gen. John W. Foster contributes a detailed biographical account of the Chinese general, statesman, and diplomatist, Li Hung Chang, best known to the world at large as the ambassador intrusted with the recent negotiations for peace with Japan, and presently to visit this country.

—There is no student of modern history who will not look eagerly to see what so great an expert as Prof. F. A. Aulard has to say on the authenticity of the Memoirs of Barras and on their value as historical evidence. M. Aulard's judgment in this cause appears in a luminous article in the *Revue Bleue* of July 4. Barras he considers one of the most important actors and one of the most clear-sighted witnesses of the Revolution. The points, then, to be chiefly looked at in respect of his book are, first, its authenticity, and, second, its truthfulness and honesty. There are three kinds of memoirs of the Revolution—those which are absolutely contemporaneous with the events they record, such as the 'Journal d'une Bourgeoise,' published by M. Lockroy; those which are nearly contemporaneous, written on the morrow of the events, like the Memoirs of Mme. Roland; and, in the third place, but at a great distance, the memoirs written long after the Revolution, when the events had become disfigured, or transfigured, in the memory of the writer. No one of these categories, in M. Aulard's opinion, includes the whole of the work of Barras. Certain parts of the Memoirs were written from day to day, others immediately after the events, others, again, much later. An attentive reader can often distinguish between these portions of Barras's book, and M. George Duruy, its editor, ought to have put it in the reader's power always so to distinguish. Where Barras gives contemporary evidence, it is of very great value.

—From another point of view memoirs may be classified as to authenticity. Some are absolutely authentic, like those of Thibaudeau; some certainly apocryphal, like those of Robespierre; others mixed, like those of Levasseur written out by Achille Roche from Levasseur's notes, and those of Talleyrand written by M. de Bacourt from notes and conversations of Talleyrand, and "candidly published as true by the good Duc de Broglie." At first sight the Memoirs of Barras seem to belong to this last category, for they were written out and embellished after the death of Barras by Alexandre Corbeau Rousselin de Saint-Albin. This was done in accordance with Barras's wish, for he liked as an aristocrat to be thought illiterate, and besides had a high admiration of Rousselin's style. Still, it is a manuscript of Barras's own that forms the basis of the present book, and Barras's notes, too, exist, and are in the possession of M. George Duruy, while all the originals of Levasseur and of Talleyrand have disappeared. Then, too, it is to be remembered that Rousselin himself was a contemporary of Barras, and played a less important part on the same stage where Barras was playing a great one. We have hardly space to hint at pages of M. Aulard's article so compact of interest and value that they cannot be compressed. He concludes that M. Barras's memoirs "sont donc à lire, à commenter, à citer. C'est une des sources les plus curieuses et les plus importantes de l'histoire, surtout morale et anecdotique, de la Révolution." But he calls for the publication of Barras's notes.

—It is not clear that Mr. William Root Bliss was happily inspired in choosing the title of his book 'Quaint Nantucket' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). "Quaint" was a better word than it now is in the days when it had less vogue and had been less misused. In its present connection it has a slightly patronizing sound, offensive to pious ears in the Island Home, and likely enough to be resented by the faithful as savoring somewhat of "coof" insolence. For why should Nantucket be held to be more quaint than any other town of like date and like history? The first impression is only deepened when one turns the title-page, and finds that the book "relates to that quaint Nantucket which existed for two hundred years before the island was discovered by 'the summer boarder.'" Was Nantucket quainter then than other towns? Or was every town quaint two hundred and fifty years ago? Mr. Bliss has done harm to his book by this mistake, for the book is really worth reading, comprising many interesting extracts from old town and court records, original letters and account books, sea journals, and the like. Whether it would not have been a better plan to print these, and the whole of them, without more comment and explanation than could easily be given in foot-notes, is a question which we need not consider. It is pretty to think of the disappointment of the summer visitor who puts his book in his bag, supposing it mere seaside trash, when he discovers that it is really a serious book, and of a certain, greater or less, value.

—The Nicaragua Canal scheme makes everything relating to that country interesting just now—a fact which may account for the appearance of a volume 'Nicaragua: War of the Filibusters,' mainly made up of the narrative, now out of print, left behind him by the "grey-eyed man of destiny" (Richmond, Va.: B. F. Johnson Publishing Co.). The author, Judge D. B. Lucas of West Virginia, follows the steps of the "regenerator" of Nicaragua, and makes out for him a better case than one would have supposed possible. This is partly because all modern filibusters are moralists. Walker was unfortunate in his effort because it was connected with slavery, but he repudiated all idea of doing anything wrong in invading a friendly state and upsetting its government. His motive was the good of the country. So was that of Maximilian in part, when he felt compelled to upset the Mexican Government. All the Cuban filibusters enlist in the cause of freedom, and Dr. Jameson and his friends call themselves "reformers." The Boers, however, call them freebooters, just as the Spaniards call Raleigh and Drake pirates. The modern terminology is no doubt a tribute to law and morality, which forbid us any longer to talk even about the "conquest" of foreign territory. The volume also contains an article on the canal by the Hon. W. A. MacCorkle, and an essay on the Monroe Doctrine, by J. Fairfax McLaughlin, who calls attention to the surprising fact that none of the many prominent persons recently engaged in discussing the Doctrine—neither the President, nor Mr. Olney, nor Senator Lodge, nor Mr. McMaster—has mentioned the circumstance that in 1817 Pozzo di Borgo, then in the service of Russia, was in favor of *subjugating the United States*. No wonder Monroe was opposed to any change in the *status quo*. Borgo is dead, thank God, but, alas! his spirit still lives, and doubtless dictates the hidden policy of many a crafty king and emperor.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

THAYER'S EVIDENCE IN JURY TRIAL.

A Preliminary Treatise on Evidence at the Common Law. Part I. Development of Trial by Jury. By James Bradley Thayer. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1896.

PROF. THAYER'S contributions to the *Harvard Law Review* on the subject of Evidence have for several years attracted the attention not only of students, but of lawyers engaged in practice as well; and it has been generally understood that they were designed as the groundwork of a treatise on the subject. Of this treatise the present small volume forms the introductory part. It gives us an insight into the author's view of the branch of the law to which it relates, and enables us to judge of his general plan. The completed volume is to be published within a year. These introductory chapters are published in advance, as being likely to prove interesting to general readers, and for use in universities and law schools in connection with the study of the history of institutions. Students can hardly fail to find them of value. They are to be regarded as "incidental and auxiliary studies in the course of an examination of the law of evidence in English-speaking countries."

The first question which is sure to occur to every lawyer to whose attention a new treatise on evidence is called, is why it is written at all. Our shelves are full of treatises on the subject, and very good ones. Why add another? To this question the answer given by Prof. Thayer is that his method and purpose in writing are new; that it is his intention to consider the development of the law of evidence in a way not hitherto done, a way likely to free it from much of the confusion which has hitherto surrounded it. To judge of the execution of such an attempt merely from an introduction is impossible, but these preliminary studies make it clear that the plan of the work is both sound and novel, and give promise of a treatise which will have to be tested by comparison with Greenleaf and Stephen.

To point out in a few words the essential difference between the plan of these great writers on evidence and that of Prof. Thayer, we may say that, in both Greenleaf and Stephen, the fundamental assumption is that the law of evidence in the common-law world consists of a body of natural and rational principles of proof which judges have evolved by close attention to the subject, and which is perhaps superior to the great body of substantive law which determines our personal, property, or contractual rights and duties in being more scientific. Both books treat the law of evidence as in a measure an established and final system, something like that of natural science, and endeavor to expound and rationalize it. That such a system underlies our law, and has been quietly elucidated by both Greenleaf and Stephen, cannot be doubted; but if, as Prof. Thayer says, we raise our eyes from the common-law system and look abroad, we find that our law of evidence, as such, has in other countries no existence. The reason of this is simply that we make use of a mode of trial unknown in other countries—trial by jury. Our law of evidence consists of innumerable rules framed in great measure to prevent this peculiar tribunal, unskilled in the examination of evidence or the application of rational rules of proof, from being confused and misled and governed by improper considerations. These are not to be met with in other countries, because in them trial by jury is not the ordinary means of determining questions of fact. In them the question is, mainly, Does a given piece of evidence tend to prove or disprove a certain fact? This is not a question of law, but of inference for the judge in the particular case. Its decision involves and "lays down" no rules, and hence there is no body of rules constituting a law of evidence. With us, on the other hand, the inquiry is not mainly probative; it has really been for many centuries, What, among really probative matters, "shall, nevertheless, for this or that practical reason, be excluded, and not even heard by the jury?" Add to this that the reason, instead of being avowed, was almost always assumed by the court to be attributable to some principle of "the law of evidence," that the function of the jury was originally very different from what it is now, and that the whole body of rules of evidence is a growth of centuries, and we see at once that there is room for a most interesting book, at once practical and historical, which shall separate the principles of proof and inference from technical rules forced into our system by the operation of jury trial, and discriminate these again from the multitude of rules of pleading, procedure, and substantive law which in many directions have become confounded with those of evidence. Such a work would combine the historical method with those of Stephen and Greenleaf. As equipment for the undertaking, not only has Prof. Thayer had long familiarity with common-law evidence as administered in the courts, but his foundation of practice has been supplemented by years of research. Although his book is not finished, his papers in the *Law Review* have made his name known on both sides of the Atlantic.

The treatise presupposes an inquiry into the origin and history of trial by jury, and the present part consists of three chapters on this subject, as well as one on the older modes of trial which preceded the introduction of the jury. The author is reluctant to state conclusions or make generalizations of a hypothetical character, and there is certainly no field in which this temper is safer than in law. As we are not under the same bonds, we have no hesitation in pointing out certain conclusions to which these researches seem to point, not explicitly stated by him.

One is, that the more light we get on the past of our law, the more certain it seems that its condition in any century (could we obtain a view of the whole of it) would probably show much the same jumble of contradictions overlying a substratum of system that we find to-day—heightened, however, the further back we go, by the fact that, the more remote the period, the more contending influences we find struggling with one another for the mastery of the law. In the Middle Ages, for instance, there were, besides the remains of Saxon family, tribe and land law, the Roman system, so far as it may have been preserved; the law as administered by ecclesiastics (the bishop sitting in the county court can hardly have done much for the symmetry of the law); the feudal system; and the King's law, which must have been to a great extent personal. We have to-day a comparatively uniform law, the rules of which are determined far more than in any previous age by the necessities and convenience of the actual condition of society, yet it is full of inconsistencies. What must it not have been at the time of the Conquest! The law has never been developed as a whole from century to century, nor has even any one branch of it, like evidence. We may trace the rise, progress, and decay of a particular institution or theory, but we shall often find it flourishing side by side with institutions and theories totally at variance with it, and apparently belonging by origin to a totally different period. The introduction of trial by ordeal, for instance, obviously belongs to a religious period, when the belief in the intervention of God in every-day affairs by miracle is a matter of course; in such a period what could be more natural than to call God in to reveal the truth as to a hidden fact, like guilt or innocence? To William Rufus this seemed absurd even in the eleventh century, and he declared that God had decided these matters long enough—he would do it himself now; notwithstanding which, trial by ordeal lived on for a century and a half. The Normans introduced the germ of jury trial through the inquest, but they saw nothing inconsistent with this in trial by battle, which is said to have been violently disliked by the English, not because it was irrational, but because it was expensive, and the right to trial by battle existed side by side with trial by jury for many centuries. Again, wager of law existed as a living institution as far back as we can go, and wager of law is founded on the primitive but not irrational conception that, in the absence of better proof, the oaths of a number of people who may be presumed to know something about the matter are a good way of deciding a controversy.

It is often inferred from the barbarous modes of trial common a thousand years ago that our ancestors had no conception of the nature and function of proof. This is quite a mistake. They not only knew what proof was (even a child or savage knows that a disputed statement to be believed must be corroborated by facts), but they knew how to preserve it for future use. Not having any system of records, they accompanied a sale, transfer, or other event by formal acts in the presence of witnesses, who were relied on to prove it if afterward called in question."

"Great pains, to be sure, were taken in early times to require publicity as regards matters which might be the basis of legal right, and to fix rights by connecting them with easily known facts; the endowing at the church door, the requirement, in case of curtesy, of hearing the child cry within the four walls, the sale before witnesses, and the law of hue and cry, are instances" (p. 120).

Nor was there ever a time when a plaintiff had not to produce some proof of the story told by him. The difficulty was that the defendant could produce proof too. The court had no power to sift the evidence before it or to get more. A miracle would determine it, a battle would give God an opportunity to make the right victorious; or if a number of friends came in and made oath that there was nothing in the plaintiff's story, that might be enough. What they did not understand was to try the case by means of proof, and this partly because they had no compulsory process of proof. What seems to us the most simple thing in the world—to make an inquiry into a matter of disputed fact—was exactly what they did not understand, and the name given by the Normans to their procedure shows what it was. It was a royal *inquisitio*, or inquest, to get at facts by compulsory process. In previous ages, astonishing as it may seem to us, judgment had come before trial, because the proof was introduced merely to enable the old popular judges to judge what trial should be resorted to, or whether any was necessary. Now for the first time trial precedes judgment.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

What we have said seems to us to make it clear that the function which the jury was destined to perform was not that of introducing to the English the conception of proof—that they had already; but of accustoming them to seeing evidence weighed and cases decided according to a preponderance of proof, which they knew little or nothing about. The jury at first were probably simply witnesses such as the Anglo-Saxon world had long been accustomed to, who testified to facts within their knowledge, such as those of possession, birth, age, dowry, an assault, etc. What the King did was to send an officer to take their evidence, and use it in order to administer relief to suitors in his courts. That these witnesses became gradually triers of fact, and wholly lost their original functions, is, of course, undisputed. In fine, we think we shall hardly be wrong if we surmise, as we have said, that the Normans found the jurymen on the spot, and their kings taught them not what proof was, but how to try cases with it. Before the Normans came the witnesses had been the followers of the two parties, and in the last resort there was nobody but God to decide between them. The moment the Normans appear, the witnesses are selected by public authority, and the King's court takes and acts upon their testimony. This was what *inquest*, or inquiry, meant. The further we examine the matter, the more pithy and pregnant seems the remark attributed to William Rufus.

These chapters describe part of the process by which the jury has been gradually developed into a highly specialized and technical tribunal of fact. We may call attention to the account given of the history of the process of attaint, and the introduction of new trials, as particularly valuable. All this is new matter, especially in a book on evidence. We shall look with interest for the more modern portions of the book, which may be expected to throw new light upon what is one of the great feats of English jurisprudence, the sharp discrimination between law and fact. Whether we have not reached a period at which the work may be regarded as accomplished we do not know. Trial by jury has come in our day to produce greater expense and delay than did the old trial by battle. We have become familiar, through the extension of equity, with a much simpler and speedier mode of trial; so far as many ordinary matters of contract or property are concerned, a single judge is quite as good as, if not better than, a judge and jury together. On the other hand, in matters affecting life and liberty, it is such an invaluable protection against abuse of power that in the very countries where its germs were killed by despotism centuries since, it has been reintroduced in our day in special cases for the safeguard of popular rights. Judging of the future by the past, we should anticipate that, in the ages to come, this ancient form of trial, in its application to the thousand and one petty disputes which occupy the courts, would tend to fall into disuse, rising at the same time into renewed dignity and influence the more it is confined to those grand questions of human right, in the determination of which our deepest instincts incline us to resort to a popular tribunal of fact.

Moral Evolution. By George Harris, Professor in Andover Theological Seminary. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

Prof. Harris's book is one of the many reconciliations of science and religion of which we have had hundreds and thousands during the last half century. The establishment of a new scientific theory, however startling at first, and however vigorously opposed, has always been the signal for the appearance of a body of ingenious writers panoplied with the assurance that there is no real conflict between the new science and the traditional opinion. Sometimes the reconciliation has been found easy enough between that opinion in its frank sincerity and the new science in its obvious implications, but more frequently both the traditional opinion and the new science have been shorn of something of their proper strength before the declaration of the bans. In general the approximation of the traditional theology to science has been more remarkable than that of science to the traditional theology. The concessions made from the scientific side have for the most part been made by theologians who have not consulted the scientists, and have not always had their backing. Prof. Harris's book does not err in this direction. Hardly could anything be more generous than his concessions of traditional belief. Even where he retains "the form of sound doctrine," it is only the form that he retains, never the substance. And yet it is very doubtful whether the genuinely scientific will accept his reconciliation. They will complain that his terms on both sides are too loose and vague to have the character of science, and that his method in general is theological—genial, conciliatory, liberal, but still theological. On the other hand, the conservative theologians will repudiate it root and branch. They will object that science gets everything by the compromise, theology nothing. They will insist that it is another instance of the lamb inside the lion. Those who will be most pleased are the steadily increasing multitude of persons who are willing enough to change their opinions if they may be permitted to use a venerable nomenclature and to carry themselves in the approved orthodox manner.

Prof. Harris's book, like many others of its kind, makes a more promising start than is fulfilled by what ensues. Beginning with the acceptance of evolution as "a theory of the derivation of one species from another, of the descent (?) of man from inferior animals, of the progress of man in his habits, arts, morality, and religion, in accordance with the methods which control the development of life below and around him," he finds it regarded by some as antagonistic to morality, by others as independent of it, while others regard the two as identical, and a fourth party think the two harmonious. Prof. Harris classes Huxley with the independents, but Huxley's contention that it is "the business of morality to combat the selfishness which controls the process called cosmic" would seem to place him among those who hold to the antagonism of evolution and ethics. At this point Prof. Harris brings out the diametrical difference of Buckle and Kidd in a very interesting manner. Kidd he never touches but to lay his finger on some ailing place. The identity of ethics and evolution is set aside as an inadequate theory, though having more to recommend it than the doctrines of antagonism and independence; and the doctrine of coincidence and harmony is accepted as the most satisfactory. The method of the following chapters is first to discover the true character of morality, and then consider whether its harmony with evolution is borne out by a comparison of the two orders of belief and fact. The treatment is fresh and popular, the style admirably clear and forcible, and pervading all there is a shrewd intelligence, a "saving common sense," a capacity for seeing both sides, and a homely practical wisdom, that go far to constitute the value of the book and commend it to those on either hand who are least likely to accept its ultimate conclusions.

The more purely ethical chapters, from the fourth to the eighth inclusive, have more intrinsic interest than any others. The chapter on utilitarianism is extremely fair; and if here, as elsewhere, Prof. Harris is more glad to find agreement between things that differ than to emphasize their difference, his genial disposition is so rare that it enlists our sympathy. His sixth chapter, "Self-Realization and Altruism," is evidently the one he values most. It contains what he considers most distinctive in his ethical position, "the perception that self-preservation, self-assertion, self-enjoyment, and self-perfection have a vital relation to the fundamental facts of evolution." This perception, he tells us, has been to him in the nature of a discovery, and in it he finds "the reconciliation of conflicting theories of ethics as well as the larger harmony of ethical with evolutionary doctrine." If this discovery seems to us less original than to Prof. Harris, there is still something very fresh and attractive in his use of it. It brings him into sharp collision with Huxley and Kidd, two writers whose essential unity of ethical conception underlying their apparent difference he has brought out as no one has until now.

His discussion of the relations of ethics and religion is less satisfactory. Here the thought is looser and vaguer, and the survivals of theological phraseology are more frequently met. Moreover, there is a conscious or unconscious avoidance of knotty points, which is not reassuring, and as little so is the fact that matters of first-rate importance are passed over trippingly—the matter of immortality, for example. On page 204 there is a conjunction as queer as the mixing of the bowsprit and the rudder in "The Hunting of the Snark." We read: "John Stuart Mill put feeling into mathematics when he said that if he must believe, on pain of going to hell, that two and two made five in any part of the universe, to hell he would go rather than admit it." But the most famous of Mill's philosophical heresies is his belief that two and two might make five in a different world from ours. In a very different connection he said, criticising Mansel, that he would call no being good who was not what he meant when he applied that name to his fellow-creatures, and that if God should send him to hell for not so calling him, then to hell he would go.

Prof. Harris is even less satisfactory in the application of his general conceptions to the particulars of Christian doctrine than in his application of them to the wider interests of religion. But there is very little in the way of putting new wine into old bottles. In most cases the old bottles are frankly discarded. It is difficult to see how Prof. Harris can or will sign the Andover creed the next time that crucial test is brought to bear upon the consciences of the Andover professors. In comparison with his book, that called 'Progressive Orthodoxy,' which emanated from Andover a few years ago, has decidedly a mediæval air. His own book is exceedingly progressive, but of orthodoxy it has not a shred. Particularly noticeable by its absence is that "Christocentric" Theology by which 'Progressive Orthodoxy' was so strongly marked.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

The doctrines of election and reprobation and the opposition of God's justice and mercy are denounced as immoral; the damnation of the ignorant heathen is served in the same fashion, and the doctrines of the fall of man and total depravity are firmly set aside. The Trinity is passed over in silence. The Holy Spirit has a dozen lines to which no anti-Trinitarian could object.

Coming to Christology, our author's emphasis is on the recovery of the humanity of Jesus, and Strauss's 'Leben Jesu' is indicated as the happy turning-point in this regard. The deity of Jesus is ignored, and his divinity is regarded as the formula of his transcendent moral excellence, the ideal of human goodness being degraded in order to assign to him a "moral perfection" that is purely arbitrary or rhetorical. "In knowledge he was not omniscient. He gained knowledge as other men do." His miracles are reduced to the lowest terms; some of them discarded, the others minimized and declared unimportant. As for his resurrection, "There is strong presupposition against the resurrection of a human being," but if Jesus was "a unique person," this presupposition may be set aside. Thus playing fast and loose with his humanity, Prof. Harris's general position is that of the Unitarians midway of the century, when they had already abandoned their original position for one more liberal. "Sin is departure from the type. It is missing the mark." This does not sound much like Augustine and Calvin and Edwards, but Prof. Harris is not servile in his subjection to great names. "Revelation is embodiment of God in the very existence and evolution of nature." "The only idea of God to which science may properly object is the idea of a God external to nature. . . . But this is not the Christian idea." To prove this, John Fiske's quotation of Dr. A. V. G. Allen is used. But the quotation describes Greek thought, not Roman nor Biblical.

The wonder is at what rate this kind of thing is sifting down into the Congregational pulpits and societies. Of course the young Andoverians can be relied upon to better their instruction when they go out into the world. One thing is obvious, that the dogmatic system of evangelical theology vanishes utterly under this treatment, and becomes a soft, vaporous mist of speculation with so much authority as inheres in any tolerably consistent scheme of thought.

Rambles and Studies in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Dalmatia. By Robert Munro. Edinburgh: Wm. Blackwood & Sons. Illustrated. Pp. xx, 395, 8vo.

THE greater part of this volume is devoted to an account of an archæological congress held in Serayevo in August, 1894. The members, under the presidency of Prof. Rudolf Virchow, visited different parts of Bosnia-Herzegovina and the district of Salona, and found this region, which is the borderland between the West and the East, to be extremely rich, not only in historical remains, Roman, mediæval, and Turkish, but also in those of prehistoric times. Mr. Munro does not confine himself to archæology, however, but has much to say that is of general interest about the country and its inhabitants. The scenery of Bosnia impressed him with its beauty as it does every other traveller who comes from the monotonous Hungarian plain into this land of forest-clad mountains, running streams, countless waterfalls, and picturesque villages clinging to crags like clusters of swallows' nests, often with feudal or Turkish castles dominating them. Serayevo, with its hundred minarets and church spires rising from an undulating sea of quaint houses on either precipitous bank of the turbulent Milyatzka, and its framework of hills and distant Alps, excited in him an inexpressible admiration. But all this sylvan beauty is left behind when the traveller, after passing through the defile which the Narenta has cut through the mountains, enters into the Karst or limestone region of southern Herzegovina. Here are endless chains of bleak hills and barren plateaus, with luxuriant tropical vegetation only about some pool or along the banks of the errant rivers which burst full-grown from the hillsides to disappear as mysteriously and finish underground their brief course to the Adriatic.

The provinces differ from other parts of the former Turkish Empire in that the inhabitants are divided, not by race, but by religion. They are practically all Slavs, 670,000 in round numbers belonging to the Orthodox Church, 550,000 being Mohammedans, and 330,000 Roman Catholics. Among the miscellaneous remainder are 10,000 Jews, who, driven by the Moors from Spain centuries ago, still retain the language and some of the customs of home from which they have been so long exiled.

The Mohammedans, who include the nobility, landed gentry, and a large part of the urban population, have a peculiar interest. They are largely the descendants of the heretical sect known as the Bogomiles, who, after three hundred years of bitter persecution, were converted to Mohammedanism at the Turkish conquest. Their Christian origin is shown in various ways. Their tenets, for which some writers regard them as the precursors of the Reformation, "still lurk as secret and sacred traditions among some families." The traces of an ancient Christian ritual, it is said, can be detected in some of their religious services. Christians are admitted to their mosques, and Mr. Munro describes a service attended by him at which the Emperor's birthday was commemorated. They are monogamous, and in certain places their women go unveiled. The great Bosnian lords, or begs, still live in the feudal castles built by their Christian ancestors; they have Slavic names, and can show escutcheons, rolls, and titles of nobility inherited from Christian kings. The sepulchral monuments of the Bogomiles—there are said to be 60,000 of them—on which both the crescent and the cross are often to be found sculptured, are held by all the Mohammedans in deep veneration.

Some travellers have hinted that many of these families are not unwilling to return to their former faith—with little reason, apparently, for the Bosnian Moslems are more ardent followers of the Prophet than the Osmanli, whom they detest because of their laxity in doctrine and practice. Their numbers have increased by 50,000 within the past ten years, and their progress in other directions has been marked. Up to within five or six years, for instance, they have shown little interest in education; but large numbers now enter the elementary schools, the gymnasia, the commercial academies and training college for teachers. In Serayevo there is a college for teaching Mohammedan law, which Mr. Munro found to be completely furnished with "lecture-rooms, dormitories, refectory, bath-rooms, library, council-room, chapel, etc., all constructed on the most approved sanitary principles." Another visitor to this institution saw a copy of 'Jugurtha' and other Latin classics on the rector's table.

The descriptions of the peaceful scenes, the evidences of contentment and prosperity, which met the author's eye wherever he went, make it hard to realize that from time immemorial down to as recent a date as 1878 this land was the theatre of perpetual strife. Every man's hand was literally against his neighbor. Mohammedans and Christians were deadly enemies, but there was a deeper hatred still between Orthodox and Roman Catholic. The Franciscan monk, even, when on his round of pastoral duties, went armed and in a peasant's dress. Every path (there were no roads) was beset by brigands. Outside the walls of the towns neither life nor property was safe. The landlord oppressed his serfs; the rapacious Phanariot clergy robbed their wretched flocks; and the hand of the Turk was heavy on all alike. Repeatedly they strove to throw off this yoke, and in the final struggle in 1875 three thousand villages and hamlets were destroyed, and two hundred thousand men, women, and children were driven to the inhospitable ravines of the Dalmatian Alps, where nearly half of them perished from hunger and exposure. In 1878 the whole people, including even the Spanish Jews, took up arms to resist the Austrian whose rule they dreaded no less than that of the Turk. The attempt was vain, and four pitiful years of military despotism followed. Against this they rebelled in 1882, and though the insurrection was speedily put down, it called the Emperor's attention to their condition. In a moment of inspiration Francis Joseph changed the whole method of government. Baron de Kállay, a Hungarian and the present Imperial Minister of Finance, was made sole ruler of the provinces, with practically unlimited power.

The character and success of this nobleman's administration are but too briefly indicated in Mr. Munro's concluding chapter. His ruling principle has been to substitute local self-government, as far as possible, for the military system, with religious toleration, protection of property rights, equal justice to all classes, and equitable taxation. One ancient custom, alone, has been arbitrarily suppressed, that of carrying arms. "The long guns, ornamental pistols, and damaskeened blades which formerly formed part of every man's personal attire, are now things of the past." Some of the indications of the material prosperity of the country are the great increase in the revenue—50 per cent. in the last five years—the rise in value and amount of all farm products and live stock, the revival of old industries and the creation of new ones, especially in the development of the mineral resources of the land. There are 500 miles of railway and 3,000 miles of highroads. Banks are fast taking the place of the village money-lender, and by a judicious land-purchase scheme 12,000 peasants have bought the farms which they till. Even the desert region of the Karst is being reclaimed by a system of artificial irrigation. Besides model farms in different places for instruction in scientific agriculture, there are 943 elementary schools, three gymnasia, four commercial schools, a training college for teachers, and two seminaries for orthodox and Roman Catholic priests. Apparently not included in these are the Mohammedan college before referred to, and industrial schools in several of the large towns. In Serayevo there is an establishment, with accommodations for fifty scholars, for teaching decorative metal work, and another for weaving carpets, with departments for instruction in dyeing, weaving, and spinning. The Government also supplies the women of the harems with yarns for weaving

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

silk and cloths. All this has been accomplished, we are given to understand, without incurring a debt, the revenues paying all the expenses of the administration with the exception of those of the Austrian garrisons.

With this industrial and intellectual development, "the principles of law and order have taken a deep hold on the people." In this land, where but recently human life and woman's honor were held in light esteem, crime is now almost unknown. "A child or a maiden," writes E. B. Lanin in the *Contemporary*, "might wander in safety from Brod to Metkovitch." And he adds, "During my first visit to Serayevo, two cases of theft in the course of a fortnight exhausted the statistics of crime in this capital." This is a city of nearly 40,000 inhabitants, and the criminals were two Austrian soldiers. So marvellous a change (which can be paralleled in India, however, as in John Nicholson's administration of Bunnoo) is not wholly due to a benevolent despotism. Serayevo, for instance, is governed by a body of twenty-four magistrates, sixteen of whom are "elected by the inhabitants qualified to vote." They are taken from the different religious creeds in proportion to their numerical strength, twelve and the mayor being Mohammedans, six Orthodox, three Catholic, and three Jews. It is difficult to add to these facts any words more appropriate than those with which Mr. Munro closes his suggestive volume. After expressing his astonishment at the "pliability of the people to fall in with the methods of Western civilization in matters of trade and business, while still retaining the purest forms of their hereditary courts of justice, and the complete change of disposition effected in the minds of all classes of the community," he says that Bosnia, a country "which but yesterday was steeped in barbarism, to-day is a model object-lesson to the civilized world."

History of the Horn-Book. By Andrew W. Tuer, F.S.A. In two volumes. London: The Leadenhall Press; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

In two elaborate volumes, with a wealth of illustration, Mr. Tuer has set forth at large what he knows and does not know about the fascinating subject of the Horn-Book. With no wish to belittle the results, we are forced to conclude that the author has ventured into a field of work for which he had not the necessary equipment; and, as a consequence, the portions of the book for which he is responsible are marked by a most curious ignorance, not merely of what, on this subject, may be most properly termed the A B C of knowledge, but even of the manner of arranging the material in such a form as to make available the information the work actually contains. The book is absolutely without sequence, being put together with such a want of order as to make a task to the reader as disconnected and difficult as the horn-book alphabet ever was to youthful abecedarians. Scattered here and there are all the facts gleaned by William Hone and K. R. H. Mackenzie, in their essays on the horn-book, and Dr. Murray has contributed valuable material from the New English Dictionary, but all this is so buried in the author's dissertations on how papyrus, filigree, and rose-headed nails are made; on how the Welsh *ll* should be pronounced, on the handwriting of a correspondent, on a quarrel of the author with an anonymous writer, and other equally irrelevant matter, as to call to mind Falstaff's proportion of a halfpenny's worth of bread to an "intolerable deal of sack." So, too, in the illustrations, the valuable reproductions and "insets," and the really charming print of "Miss Campion," with her horn-book, are scattered among a large number of puerile fancy engravings having neither artistic merit nor historical correctness.

The chief defect of the book, aside from this scrap-book method of treatment, is its attempt to differentiate the horn-book proper—that is, the alphabet backed by a board, and faced by a transparent sheet of horn—from all other forms of children's A B C books. Thus the earliest horn-book mentioned is dated 1450, yet a quotation from a fourteenth-century MS. in the British Museum—to the effect that

> Quan a chyld to scole xal set be,
> A bok hym is browt
> Naylyd on a brede of tre
> That men callyt an abece—

shows clearly that the horn-book was practically in existence many years earlier, and the mere addition of the protective sheet of horn was too slight a change to justify a separate account of it. To write a satisfactory history of the horn-book, the whole subject of A B C books—primers, rhymed alphabets, and other elementary methods of teaching the alphabet—would have to be treated together, for no clear line of demarcation can be drawn between them.

Had Mr. Tuer but studied these cognate branches, he would not account for the occasional absence of the + at the beginning of the "criss-cross" line, and its occasional replacement by a ¶, to the vagaries, or want of "sorts," of the individual printer, but would know that in primers, horn-books, and rhymed alphabets printed for the Puritan sectaries the cross was always omitted. Thus, Morton, in his 'New English Canaan' (1632), speaks of "a silenced Minister" who came over to New England and brought "a great Bundell of Horne books with him, and careful bee was (good man) to blott out all the crosses of them for feare least the people of the land should become Idolaters." In the same manner the use of a capital U matching the lower-case form (u) is discussed at some length, when, if the subject of the alphabet had been intelligently looked into, the explanation would have appeared very simple. Originally "v" was the sole form for lower-case and (by mere enlargement) for upper-case or capital letter. Naturally, when the new form "u" came into use and the need of a capital was felt, a corresponding enlargement took place, and in its earliest uses only an enlarged "u" is to be found. It has been alleged that the Elzevirs first employed the U in its present form, but this is erroneous, for it is found in books as early as 1529, and books of theirs show both forms of capitals in the same works. So, in England, both were used in the same books till well into the eighteenth century, when the older form gradually disappeared. Had the author but realized the significance of this detail, a very valuable clue would have been given him as to the relative ages of the horn-books. The introduction of a bird into the centre of the capital O is, we confess, a puzzling matter; but it was common to many other books besides the horn-book, and sometimes two straight lines were used instead of the other symbol. Probably it was a relic of the early illuminators; but as the author's theory supplies a very typical example of his methods, we quote what he has to say on the subject:

"It is probable that the symbolic O in the horn-book is a play upon the word 'Drake.' In Queen Elizabeth's reign flourished Sir Francis—El Draco, the dragon—and the historian, Arthur Duck Other Ducks and Drakes there were in plenty, amongst them a physician, author, satirist, antiquary, and poet, but they were of later broods. In what earlier form this initial O was used may yet perhaps be traced, but in the horn-book it probably conveyed no special meaning, and was intended simply as an ornament. There is, of course, the bare possibility that the printer may have meant the teacher to accept his duck as a dove, hoping that he would prove complacent because of the opportunity afforded of evolving mildly interesting discourses touching the animals which filed into the Ark. Though no English child was ever gammoned into believing that bird to be aught but a quack-quack, its presence may have helped to sell the horn-book."

Yet it must be confessed that, in spite of all defects, Mr. Tuer's work contains a large amount of valuable material, and, so far as it is a record of all known horn-books, is a most meritorious labor. It has been prepared with an utter disregard of cost, and is in many ways a beautiful piece of bookmaking. Actual reproductions of several horn-books are "let in" to pockets in the covers, and are capital pieces of workmanship. Every important specimen is reproduced in half-tone, and every mention of the horn-book is included, even to the barest allusions, while Hornby's poem is reproduced entire. Had Mr. Tuer's antiquarian knowledge and literary self-restraint but equalled his evident ability to work, he would have produced an admirable compilation, instead of merely the materials for one.

Biographical Sketches of the Graduates of Yale College. With Annals of the College History. Vol. 2. May, 1745–May, 1763. By Franklin Bowditch Dexter, M.A. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

A long interval of eleven years separates this volume from the first; none too long, one thinks, in view of the "other occupations" which have been the industrious author's nearest duty. The entire period falls within President Clap's incumbency, and is marked off at the beginning by the going into force of the new charter, and at the close by final successful resistance to "the attempt to subject its [the College's] constitution and management to the varying will of a popular Assembly." The graduates of these years necessarily, such as survived, had to face the Revolution, and as a pretty large proportion were Episcopalians, either clergy or laymen, their fortunes are to be traced in a Tory connection. The persecutions of this class are offset, in one instance, by the sufferings in Nova Scotia of a sympathizer with the Revolution who had been called to minister to a Congregational church in Cornwallis. Judge Thomas Jones, whose surcharged posthumous 'History of New York during the Revolutionary War' caused a rattling of the dry bones of our patriotic complacency some seventeen years ago, is one of the more prominent of the Tory graduates; Bishop Seabury perhaps the most prominent On the patriot side there is comparatively little distinction. Ezra Stiles, future president of the college, and Silas Deane are best known; the latter receiving at Mr. Dexter's hands a vindication in accord with Franklin's tribute to his colleague. There are two signers of the Declaration. For the rest, these men of the eighteenth century (one third clergymen) are illustrious rather in their posterity than in themselves, and among them we find the ancestors of Gideon Granger,

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

"Peter Parley," Benjamin Silliman, Gen. Theodore Lyman, Mark Hopkins, D. Huntington, Horatio Greenough, Lyman Trumbull, and that amusing rascal Stephen Burroughs. One Buell (by an odd coincidence of name) had for his half brother Noah Grant, great-grandfather of the General and President; and the Rev. John Cleaveland was second cousin to the Rev. Aaron Cleveland (Harvard, 1735), from whom descends our present chief magistrate. The family trait crops out in the Yale Cleaveland, who was suspended and then expelled for "violating the laws of the Colony and the College" by attending "Separatist" meetings in his home town with his parents, and refusing to acknowledge wrong-doing, and whose clerical obituarist thus commemorated him: "Tho' of a mild spirit, he was decided in his opinions; tho' gentle in his manner, he was independent in his conduct."

The brief Annals in which Mr. Dexter gives the physiognomy of each college year open with the formidable new body of laws, with their prohibition of attendance at religious meetings not appointed by the public authorities or approved by the College, and provision for expulsion for heresy, and exaction from President and tutor of open consent, "in the college hall," to the Westminster Confession before entering on office. In 1753, assent to the Westminster catechism, the Saybrook Confession and Platform was demanded, with a full examination of every occupant of the Professorship of Divinity—tests never exacted at Harvard, as Mr. Dexter points out, and wholly unprecedented in this country. All these hedges against free-thinking did not prevent the Rev. John Huntington (Y. C., 1762) from leaving behind him a 'Calvinism Improved; or, the Gospel illustrated as a System of Real Grace, issuing in the Salvation of All Men' (New London, 1796), whose publication after his death "caused consternation among the author's friends, and the greater part of the edition was destroyed by one of his daughters." Mr. Dexter, who has done more than merely transcribe the titles in his bibliography of each graduate, thinks it unmistakable that this heretic thought he could reconcile Universalism with "most of the Calvinistic doctrines." The titles, by the way, of the publications on trade and finance of Pelatiah Webster (Y. C., 1746) seem to justify our editor's opinion of their importance as a contribution to the commercial literature of the country. They might repay examination and quotation now.

Apart from the Annals, there is not much savor in this large and handsome volume. Mr. Dexter's conscientiousness in recording the facts, creditable or otherwise, regarding the subjects of his sketches, leads one to believe that he has made the most of his material. He permits us to smile at the estate of Hurlbut, merchant, class of 1757, "valued at only £79—the largest item being 'A Negro Girl Cate, £30'" He records, under Sherwin, class of 1759, the giving of a lot in Sunderland, Vt., for the support of the pastor who should be first settled. Two churches were formed in different parts of the town, and a race began to secure a prior claim to the land. Mr. Sherman's settlement was adjudged by the courts to have been two minutes ahead. The Rev. Joseph Sumner (Y. C., 1759), sermonizing in 1812, and speculating on the next fifty years, doubts if the Federal Union will last half that time, and dates the millennium from 1866, or the first full year of the new Union. Whitefield, reaching New Haven in December, 1754, "At Even . . . made a Visit to the President, who treated him much like a Gentleman," according to a contemporary account. "It is pleasant to learn," says Mr. Dexter himself (in phraseology which would distress Tolstoyan Christians), that to the public contribution to meet the extraordinary war expenses of the year, "collected in the several parishes throughout the colony on Sunday, March 20, 1759," the College congregation gave £13.

We will close with noting two errata not pointed out in the list on p. 788. On p. 586, in the second paragraph, the town of Harvard should be located northwest of Boston, not "northeast"; and in the first line on p. 724 the "of" following "measures" must certainly stand for *or*.

AMERICAN SCIENCE SERIES.

Barker's Physics.	Advanced Course.
Remsen's Chemistry.	3 courses.
Packard's Zoology.	3 courses.
Martin's Human Body.	3 courses.
Walker's Political Economy.	3 courses.
Newcomb & Holden's Astronomy.	2 courses.
Bessey's Botany.	2 courses.
James's Psychology.	2 courses.
Sedgwick & Wilson's Biology.	

HENRY HOLT & CO., N. Y.

Recently Published in Spanish.

EL DESDÉN CON EL DESDÉN

Comedia en tres Jornadas. Por Don Augustin Moreto y Cabana. Edited, with Introduction and Notes, by Alexander W. Herdler, recently Instructor in Modern Languages, Princeton University. No. 3 Teatro Español.

This play is classed among the deeper and serious comedies of Moreto, and ranks one of the highest in its perfection of style, accurate delineation of character, logical evolution of plot, sparkling wit, and irresistible humor of Polilla (the comic character of the play), happy dénouement.

12mo paper, 128 pages, 35 cents.

Complete catalogue on application. For sale by all booksellers, or postpaid on receipt of price by the publisher

WILLIAM R. JENKINS

851 and 853 Sixth Ave. (48th St.), New York.

MISS RUDD, 12 YEARS RESIDENT in Europe, will conduct small party in autumn for study abroad. Music, Art, Languages, etc. Address, North Washington St., Norwich, Conn. References: Rev E. A. Bradley, D D., St Agnes', N. Y.; Rev. G. R Van De Water, D.D., St. Andrew's, N Y.; Prof. F. D All n, Harvard University; Dr. R. P. Keep, Principal Norwich Free Academy.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS.

TO LET, from 15th September, house in immediate vicinity of best private schools, and only 8 minutes' walk from Radcliffe Nine rooms, two bathrooms; slate trays. Address W. M. Griswold, Seal Harbor, Me.

The Arden Shakespeare. Seven volumes now ready. 40c. a volume.

D. C. HEATH & CO., Boston, New York, Chicago.

KINDERGARTEN SUPPLIES at SCHERMERHORN'S, 3 East 14th Street, N. Y. Send for new Catalogue.

A Wide-spread Demand

continues for the latest

Remarkable Novels

BY

ELIZABETH STUART PHELPS

and

F. HOPKINSON SMITH.

A Singular Life

has reached the

Twenty-third Thousand.

PRICE, $1.25.

Tom Grogan

is in the

Fourteenth Thousand.

ILLUSTRATED, $1.50.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., Boston,

11 East 17th Street, New York.

Books of To-day and 'Belinda' Supt.

The Best Monthly Review of English Books for American Readers.

Annual Subscription 3s., 6d., post free.

HATCHARDS,

Booksellers to the Queen,

187 Piccadilly, London

Letters of Credit. We buy and sell bills of exchange on and make Cable Transfers of money to Europe, Australia, and the West Indies; also make collections and issue Commercial and Travellers' Credits, available in all parts of the world.

Brown Brothers & Co., Bankers.

NO. 59 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

AUTHORS with new or rejected book MSS. can secure speedy and effective publication by addressing Robert L. Weed, Treasurer, 114 Fifth Ave., New York City.

"NO ONE who smokes the 'ARCADIA MIXTURE' would ever attempt to describe its delights."

—J. M. Barrie, in "My Lady Nicotine."

Samples sent for 25 cents.

THE SURBRUG CO., Makers, 37 Dey St., N. Y.

YALE MIXTURE.

The choicest tobacco made, and pre-eminently a gentleman's smoke.

Marburg Bros., The American Tobacco Co., Successor, Baltimore, Md.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED